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ABSTRACT

This leadership guide provides the counselor and group leader with ideas on elements for effective leadership seminars. This packet is a compilation of exercises and ideas on the following: (1) creating a learning community; (2) leadership skill workshop design; (3) program planning and evaluation; and (4) leadership techniques. Brief sections outlining the responsibilities of the chairperson and of the president of the local National Association of School Counselors (NASC) chapter are also included. (Author/JLL)

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ED149229

Leadership:

A Process-

Not A Position

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LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

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SUMMARY OF BASIC COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

1. **PARAPHRASE:** Stating in your own way what the other's remark conveys to you.

   EXAMPLES: "Is this...(statement)...an accurate understanding of your idea?"

   "Would this be an example of the point you made? ...(then stating a specific example.)"

2. **BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION:** Reporting specific, observable actions of others without making accusations or generalizations about their motives, personality or character traits.

   EXAMPLES: "That's the third time you have said you agreed with a statement of mine and then added 'but' and expressed agreement with the opposite."

   "Jim and Harry have done nearly all the talking and the rest of us have said very little."

3. **DESCRIPTION OF FEELINGS:** Specifying or identifying feelings by name, simile, figure of speech, or action urge.

   Describing your own feelings: Reporting your own inner state as explicitly as you can - making sure the statement indicates the feelings are in you.

   EXAMPLES: "I feel ... embarrassed." (naming)
   ... like a tiny frog in a huge pond." (simile)
   ... like hugging you." (action urge)
   "I just swallowed a bushel of spring sunshine." (figure of speech)
   "I'm very fond of you. I care about you." (naming)

   Perception check: Describing what you perceive to be the other's inner state in order to check whether you do understand what he feels.

   EXAMPLES: "You look like you felt hurt by my comment. Did you?
   "I get the impression you'd like to change the subject. Is that accurate?"
   "You seem to be feeling more at home now."

TO UNDERSTAND THE OTHER AS A PERSON...

...Check to make sure you understand his ideas, information, and suggestions as he intended them. (Skill - Paraphrase)
...Check to make sure you accurately understand what he feels...his inner state. (Skill - Perception Check)

TO HELP OTHERS UNDERSTAND YOU AS A PERSON...

...Describe what others did that affects you personally or as a group member. (Skill - Behavior Description)
...Let others know as clearly and unambigously as possible what you are feeling. (Skill - Description of your own feelings)

PERSONAL GOALS

IMPROVING SKILLS IN FACE-TO-FACE COMMUNICATION

This form is to help you think about how you communicate with others in face-to-face situations. You can use it to set your own personal goals for improvement by following four steps.

1. Read through the entire list marking each item to show whether you think you are doing all right....should do it more often... or should do it less often. Check each item in the appropriate column.
2. If some goals that are not listed are more important to you than those on the list, write your additional goals on the blank lines.
3. Go back over the whole list and circle the three or four skills you believe would be most valuable for you to improve at this time.
4. With your group discuss which three or four items you selected. Do others agree with your priorities or do they think other skills are more important for you to improve? What is their evidence for their selections.
5. On the basis of your own judgment, now that you have heard the opinions of the others, make a final selection of the skills you most wish to improve.

	Need to do it LESS	Doing all RIGHT	Need to do it MORE
Expressing information, ideas, suggestions			
1. Being brief and concise..getting to the point.....	_____	_____	_____
2. Being forceful and definite rather than hesitant and apologetic.....	_____	_____	_____
3. Talking in specifics..giving examples, details.....	_____	_____	_____
4. Talking in generalizations, principles, explanations.....	_____	_____	_____
5. _____	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____
Expressing Feelings			
7. Letting others know when I do not understand something they have said.....	_____	_____	_____
8. Letting others know when I like something they have said or done.....	_____	_____	_____
9. Letting others know when I disagree with them.....	_____	_____	_____
10. Letting others know when I think they have changed the subject or become irrelevant.....	_____	_____	_____
11. Letting others know when I am getting irritated.....	_____	_____	_____
12. Letting others know when I feel hurt... embarrassed.....	_____	_____	_____
13. _____	_____	_____	_____
14. _____	_____	_____	_____

	Need to do it LESS	Doing all RIGHT	Need to do it MORE
Understanding information, ideas and suggestions of others			
15. Listening to understand rather than preparing my next remark.....	_____	_____	_____
16. Helping others participate in the discussion	_____	_____	_____
17. Before agreeing or disagreeing, check to make sure I do understand what others mean.....	_____	_____	_____
18. Summarizing points of disagreement and agreement.....	_____	_____	_____
19. Asking questions in ways that get more information than "yes" and "no".....	_____	_____	_____
20. _____	_____	_____	_____
21. _____	_____	_____	_____
Understanding and responding to others' feelings			
22. Checking out with others what I think they are feeling rather than assuming I know.....	_____	_____	_____
23. Responding to a person who is angry with me in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings.....	_____	_____	_____
24. Responding to a person whose feelings are hurt in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings.....	_____	_____	_____
25. Responding to a person who is expressing closeness and affection for me in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings.	_____	_____	_____
26. Surveying a group to determine how much agreement exists (in making a group decision).....	_____	_____	_____
27. _____	_____	_____	_____
28. _____	_____	_____	_____
General			
29. Talking in group discussions.....	_____	_____	_____
30. Getting feedback...encouraging others to let me know how my actions affect them..	_____	_____	_____
31. Being aware when I am trying to cope with my own feelings of discomfort rather than responding to the other person.....	_____	_____	_____
32. Being able to stand silence when with others.....	_____	_____	_____
33. Being able to stand tension & conflict..	_____	_____	_____
34. Accepting help from others.....	_____	_____	_____
35. Offering help to others.....	_____	_____	_____
36. Yielding to others..giving in to others.	_____	_____	_____
37. Standing up for myself.....	_____	_____	_____
38. Being protective of others.....	_____	_____	_____
39. _____	_____	_____	_____
40. _____	_____	_____	_____

GOALS FOR PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

This form is to help you think about various aspects of your relationships with others and your skills in group situations. It gives you a chance to set your own goals for development. The steps in using it are:

1. Read through the list of activities and decide in which ones you are doing all right, which ones you should do more, and in which you should do less. Mark each item in the appropriate place.
2. Some goals that are not listed may be more important to you than those listed. Write such goals on the blank lines.
3. Go back over the whole list and circle the numbers of the three or four activities which you would like to improve most at this time.

	Doing it RIGHT	Need to so it MORE	Need to do it LESS
Communication Skills			
1. Talking in group discussion	_____	_____	_____
2. Being brief and concise	_____	_____	_____
3. Being forceful	_____	_____	_____
4. Drawing others out	_____	_____	_____
5. Listening alertly	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
Observation Skills			
1. Noting responses of group	_____	_____	_____
2. Sensing mood of group	_____	_____	_____
3. Noting "talk patterns"	_____	_____	_____
4. Noting interest level of group	_____	_____	_____
5. Sensing reactions of individuals	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____

	Doing all RIGHT	Need to do it MORE	Need to do it LESS
Problem Solving Skills			
1. Stating problems or goals	_____	_____	_____
2. Asking for ideas	_____	_____	_____
3. Giving ideas	_____	_____	_____
4. Evaluating ideas	_____	_____	_____
5. Summarizing discussion	_____	_____	_____
6. Clarifying issues	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
8. _____	_____	_____	_____
Morale-building Skills			
1. Showing interest	_____	_____	_____
2. Encouraging others to talk	_____	_____	_____
3. Harmonizing, helping people reach agreement	_____	_____	_____
4. Reducing tension	_____	_____	_____
5. Upholding rights of individuals	_____	_____	_____
6. Expressing praise or appreciation	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
8. _____	_____	_____	_____
Emotional Expressiveness			
1. Letting others know how I fell	_____	_____	_____
2. Controlling my emotions	_____	_____	_____
3. Disagreeing openly	_____	_____	_____
4. Expressing warm feelings	_____	_____	_____
5. Expressing gratitude	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____

	Doing all RIGHT	Need to do it MORE	Need to do it LESS
Ability to Tolerate Emotions in Others			
1. Being able to cope with conflict, anger	_____	_____	_____
2. Being able to cope with closeness, affection	_____	_____	_____
3. Being able to cope with disappointment	_____	_____	_____
4. Being able to stand silence	_____	_____	_____
5. Being able to cope with tension	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
Social Relationships			
1. Being competitive	_____	_____	_____
2. Being dominant	_____	_____	_____
3. Being submissive	_____	_____	_____
4. Being trusting	_____	_____	_____
5. Being helpful	_____	_____	_____
6. Being protective	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
8. _____	_____	_____	_____
General			
1. Understanding why I do what I do (insight)	_____	_____	_____
2. Encouraging comments on my own behavior (feedback)	_____	_____	_____
3. Being willing to accept help	_____	_____	_____
4. Being able to make up my mind firmly	_____	_____	_____
5. Criticizing myself	_____	_____	_____
6. Being able to wait patiently	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____
8. _____	_____	_____	_____

THE INTERPERSONAL GAP*

You cannot have your own way all the time. Your best intentions will sometimes end in disaster, while, at other times, you will receive credit for desirable outcomes you didn't intend. In short, what you accomplish is not always what you hoped.

The most basic and recurring problem in social life is the relation between what you intend and the effect of your actions on others. The key terms we use in attempting to make sense of interpersonal relations are "intentions,""actions," and "effect." "Interpersonal gap" refers to the degree of congruence between one person's intentions and the effect produced in the other. If the effect is what was intended, the gap has been bridged. If the effect is the opposite of what was intended, the gap has become greater.

Let us look more closely at the three terms.

By "intentions" I mean the wishes, wants, hopes, desires, fears that give rise to your actions. I am not referring to underlying motives of which you are unaware.

It is a fact that people can tell you after an action has produced some result, "That wasn't what I meant to do. That outcome wasn't what I intended." Or, "Yes, that's what I hoped would happen." We look at the social outcome and decide whether it is what we intended. Apparently, we can compare what we wished prior to acting with the outcome after we have acted and determine whether they match.

Here are some examples of interpersonal intentions:

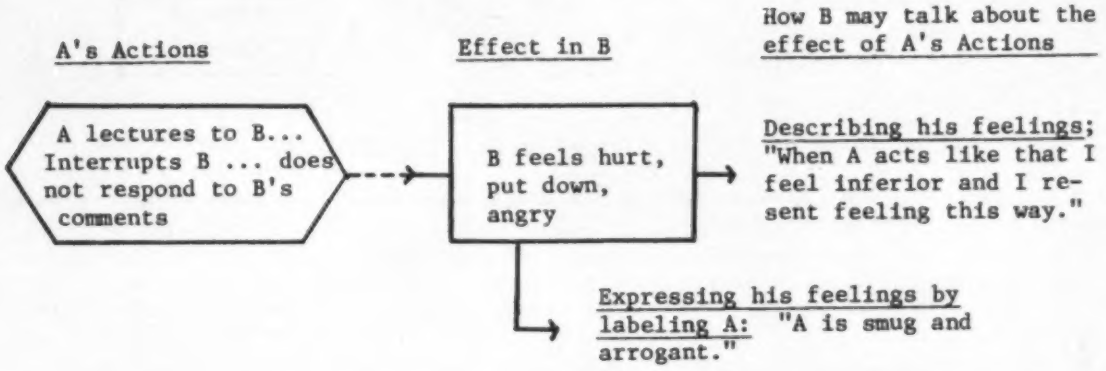
"I want him to like me."
"I want him to obey me."
"I want him to realize that I know a great deal about this subject."
"I don't want her to know that I am angry with her."
"I don't want to talk with him."
"I wish he would tell me what to do."

Intentions may also be mixed:

"I want him to know I like him, but I don't want to be embarrassed."
"I want him to tell me I'm doing a good job, but I don't want to ask for it."
"I would like him to know how angry it makes me when he does that, but I don't want to lose his friendship."

Intentions are private and are known directly only to the one who experiences them. I know my own intentions, but I must infer yours. You know your own intentions, but you must infer mine.

"Effect" refers to a person's inner response to the actions of another. We may describe the other's effect by openly stating what feelings are aroused by his actions However, we are often unaware of our feelings as feelings. When this happens our feelings influence how we see the other and we lable him or his actions in a way that expresses our feelings even though we are unaware of them.


A's Actions
Effect in B
How B may talk about the effect of A's Actions
A lectures to B... Interrupts B ... does not respond to B's comments
B feels hurt, put down, angry
Describing his feelings; "When A acts like that I feel inferior and I resent feeling this way."
Expressing his feelings by labeling A: "A is smug and arrogant."

Here are some other examples showing how the same effect may be talked about as a description of one's own feeling or by labeling the other as an indirect way of expressing one's feelings:

E-
- Describing feelings: "What he did makes me feel angry with him."
- Expressing feelings by labeling other: "He's self-centered. He wanted to hurt me."

E-
- Describing feelings: "What he just did makes me feel closer and more friendly towards him."
- Expressing feelings by labeling other: "He's certainly a warm, understanding person."

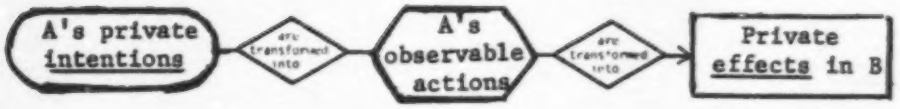
E-
- Describing feelings: "When he acts like that I feel embarrassed and ill-at-ease."
- Expressing feelings by labeling other: "He's crude and disgusting."

In contrast to interpersonal intentions and effects which are private, actions are public and observable. They must be verbal ('good morning!") or non-verbal (looking away when passing another), brief (a touch on the shoulder) or extended (taking a person out to dinner).

Interpersonal actions are communicative. They include attempts by the sender to convey a message, whether or not it is received, as well as actions that the receiver responds to as messages, whether or not the sender intended them that way.

Here is a schematic summary of the interpersonal gap.

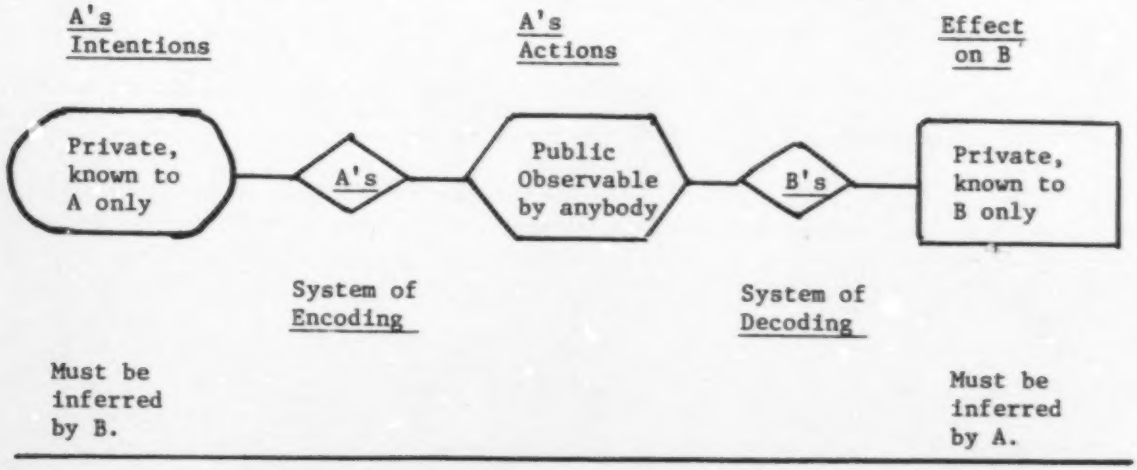
Interpersonal Gap



The interpersonal gap, thus contains two transformations. I shall refer to these steps as coding and decoding operations. A's actions are a coded expression of his inner state. B's inner response is a result of the way he decodes A's actions. If B decodes A's behavior in the same way that A has coded it, A will have produced the effect he intended.

To be specific, let's imagine that I feel warm and friendly toward you. I pat you on the shoulder. The pat, thus, is an action code for my friendly feeling. You decode this, however, as an act of condescension. The effect of my behavior, then, is that you feel put down, inferior, and annoyed with me. My system of coding does not match your system of decoding and the interpersonal gap, consequently, is difficult to bridge.

We can now draw a more complete picture of the interpersonal gap as follows:

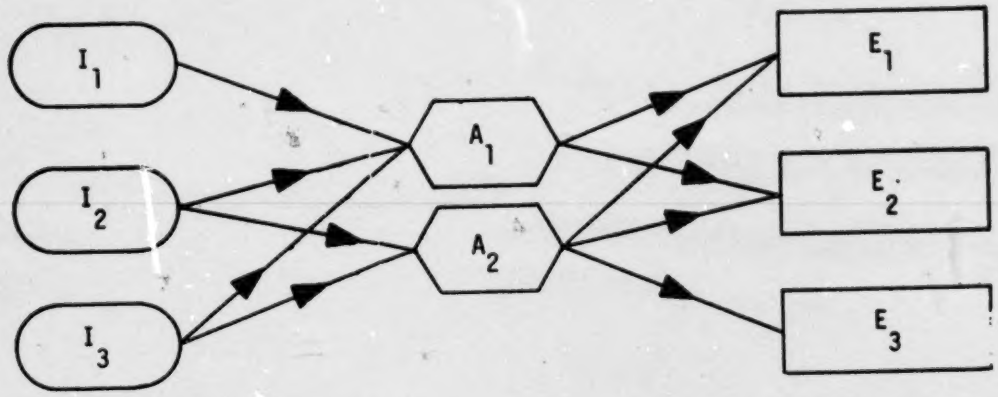


You may be unaware of the ways you code your intentions and decode others' actions. In fact, you may have been unaware that you do. One of the important objectives of this study of interpersonal relations is to help you become aware of the silent assumptions that influence how you code and decode.

If you are aware of your encoding operation, you can accurately describe how you typically act when you feel angry, affectionate, threatened, uneasy, etc.

If you are aware of your method of decoding behavior of others, you can accurately describe the kinds of distortions or misreadings of others you typically make. Some people, for example, respond to gestures of affection as if they were attempts to limit their autonomy. Some respond to offers of help as if they were being put down. Some misread enthusiasm as anger.

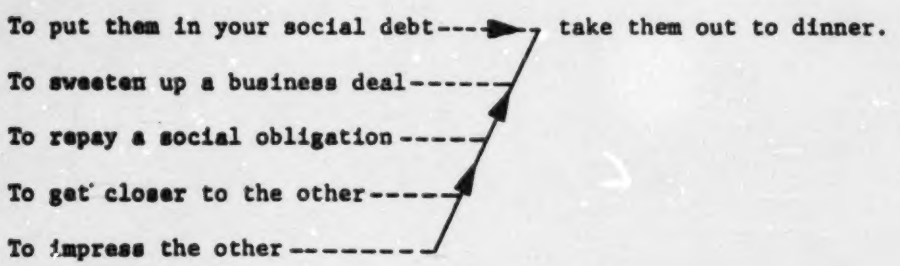
Because different people use different codes, actions have no unique and constant meaning, but are substitutable. As the diagram below shows, an action may express different intentions, the same intention may give rise to different actions, different actions may produce the same effect, and different effects may be produced by the same kind of action.



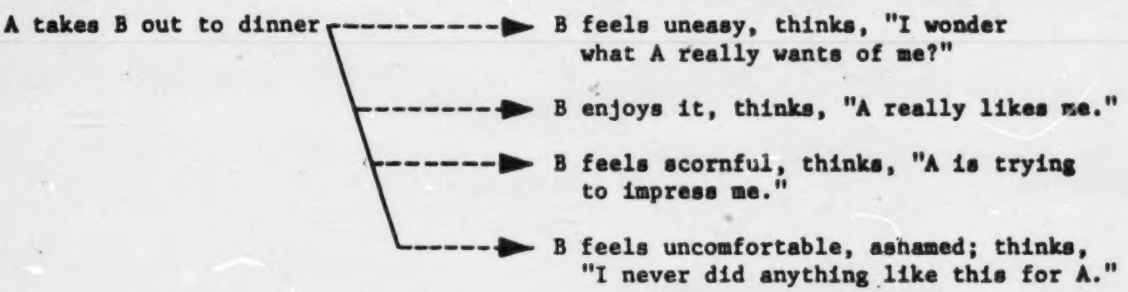
The same intention may be expressed by different actions.

Intention	Actions
To show affection	take them out to dinner.
	buy them a gift.
	show interest in what they say.
	don't interrupt them when they are busy and preoccupied.

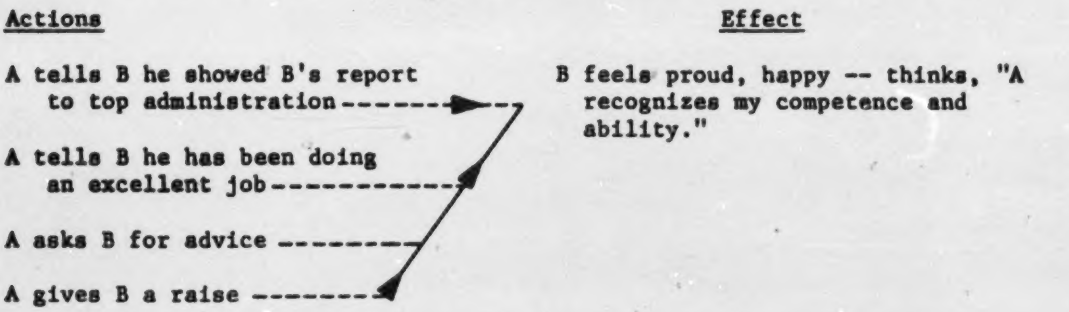
Different intentions may be expressed by the same action.


Intentions
Action
To put them in your social debt
To sweeten up a business deal
To repay a social obligation
To get closer to the other
To impress the other
take them out to dinner.

The same action may lead to different effects.


Action
Effects
A takes B out to dinner
B feels uneasy, thinks, "I wonder what A really wants of me?"
B enjoys it, thinks, "A really likes me."
B feels scornful, thinks, "A is trying to impress me."
B feels uncomfortable, ashamed; thinks, "I never did anything like this for A."

Different actions may lead to the same effect.


Actions
Effect
A tells B he showed B's report to top administration
A tells B he has been doing an excellent job
A asks B for advice
A gives B a raise
B feels proud, happy -- thinks, "A recognizes my competence and ability."

Interpersonal Gap

It should be obvious that when you and I interact each of us views his own and the other's actions in a different frame of reference. Each of us sees his own actions in the light of his own intentions, but we see the other's actions in the light of the effect they have on us. This is the principle of partial information -- each party to an interaction has different and partial information about the interpersonal gap.

Bridging the interpersonal gap requires that each person understand how the other sees the interaction.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Jane hadn't seen Tom Laird since they taught together at Brookwood School. When she found that she would be attending a conference in Tom's city she wrote to ask if she could visit them. Tom and his wife, Marge, whom Jane had never met, invited her to stay with them for the three days of the conference.

After dinner the first night Jane was the one who suggested that they clean up the dishes so they could settle down for an evening of talk. She was feeling warm and friendly to both of the Lairds and so grateful for their hospitality that she wanted to show them in some way. As she began carrying the dishes to the kitchen, Marge and Tom at first protested but when she continued cleaning up they began to help. In the kitchen, Jane took over only allowing Marge and Tom to help in little ways and to tell her where to find or store things.

When they had finished in the kitchen, Jane commented, "There now, that didn't take long and everything's spic and span. " Marge responded, "It was very helpful of you. Thank you."

When Tom and Marge were preparing for bed later that evening, Tom was startled to hear Marge burst out with, "I was so humiliated. I just resent her so much I can hardly stand it."

"You mean Jane? What did she do that upset you so?"

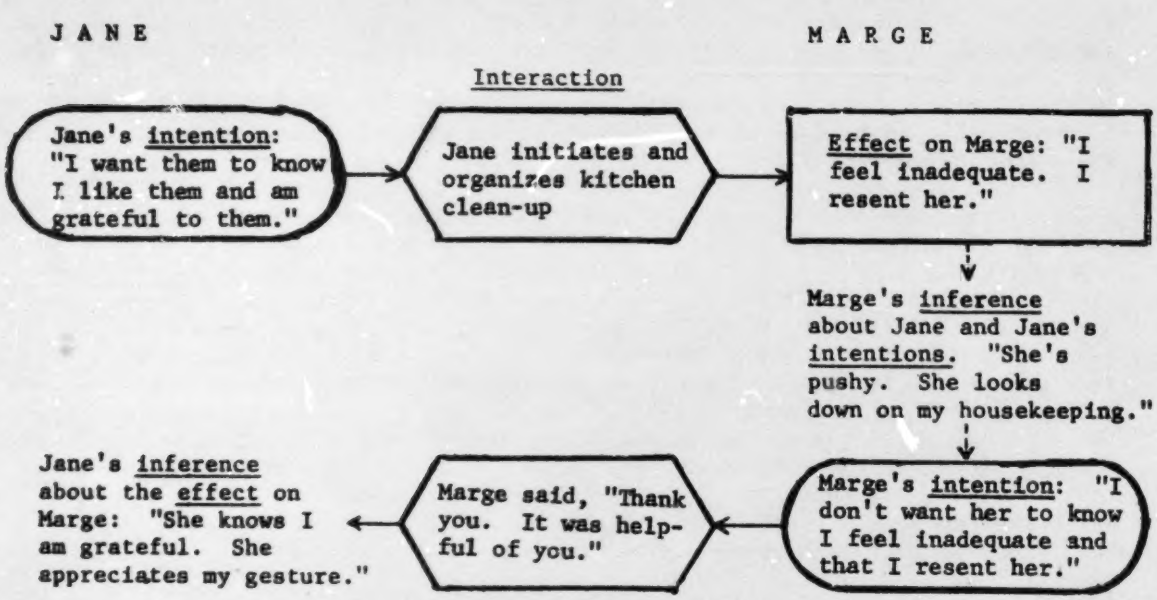
"The way she took over. She's certainly a pushy, dominating person. To come into my home as a visitor and then the moment dinner is over organize the whole clean-up. It's easy to tell that she thinks I'm not a very good housekeeper. At first I felt inadequate and then I felt angry. I'll keep house anyway I like. Who is she to show me up? After all she's a guest and you'd think she'd be grateful for our putting her up."

"Aw, c'mon, Marge, Jane was just trying to be helpful."

"Well, it wasn't helpful. It was humiliating. It's going to be hard for me to be nice to her for three days."

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Let's diagram the interpersonal gap for the interaction between Jane and Marge.


JANE
MARGE
Interaction
Jane's intention: "I want them to know I like them and am grateful to them."
Jane initiates and organizes kitchen clean-up
Effect on Marge: "I feel inadequate. I resent her."
Marge's inference about Jane and Jane's intentions. "She's pushy. She looks down on my housekeeping."
Marge's intention: "I don't want her to know I feel inadequate and that I resent her."
Marge said, "Thank you. It was helpful of you."
Jane's inference about the effect on Marge: "She knows I am grateful. She appreciates my gesture."

Note the gap between Jane's intention and Marge's inference about Jane's intention. They do not match. In fact, they are almost opposites.

Note the gap between the effect of Jane's action on Marge and Jane's inference about the effect on Marge. Again they are almost opposite.

However, within each person the situation is balanced. Jane's intention is congruent with the effect she believes occurred in Marge. Likewise, the inferences Marge makes about Jane fit with her fellings as a result of Jane's action.

The action code that Jane used to convey her friendly feelings was decoded quite differently by Marge.

Why did Marge tell Jane she had been helpful if she really resented it?

PERSONAL THOUGHTS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING*

(AUTHOR'S PREFACE)

This is the shortest chapter in the book but if my experience with it is any criterion, it is also the most explosive. It has a (to me) amusing history.

I had agreed, months in advance, to meet with a conference organized by Harvard University on "Classroom Approaches to Influencing Human Behavior." I was requested to put on a demonstration of "student-centered teaching" - teaching based upon therapeutic principles as I had been endeavoring to apply them in education. I felt that to use two hours with a sophisticated group to try helping them formulate their own purposes, and to respond to their feelings as they did so, would be highly artificial and unsatisfactory. I did not know what I would do or present.

At this juncture I took off for Mexico on one of our winter-quarter trips, did some painting, writing, and photography, and immersed myself in writing of Søren Kierkegaard. I am certain that his willingness to call a spade a spade influenced me more than I realized.

As the time came near to return I had to face up to my obligation. I recalled that I had sometimes been able to initiate very meaningful class discussions by expressing some highly personal opinion of my own, and then endeavoring to understand and accept the often very divergent reactions and feelings of the students. This seemed a sensible way of handling my Harvard assignment.

So I sat down to write, as honestly as I could, what my experiences had been with teaching, as this term is defined in the dictionaries, and likewise my experience with learning. I was far away from psychologists, educators, cautious colleagues. I simply put down what I felt, with assurance that if I had not get it correctly, the discussion would help to set me on the right track.

I may have been naive, but I did not consider the material inflammatory. After all the conference members were knowledgeable, self-critical teachers, whose main common bond was an interest in the discussion method in the classroom.

I met with the conference, I presented my views as written out below, taking only a very few moments, and threw the meeting open for discussion. I was hoping for a response, but I did not expect the tumult which followed. Feelings ran high. It seemed I was threatening their jobs, I was obviously saying things I didn't mean, etc., etc. And occasionally a quiet voice of appreciation arose from a teacher who had felt these things but never dared to say them.

I daresay that not one member of the group remembered that this meeting was billed as a demonstration of student-centered teaching. But I hope that in looking back each realized that he/she had lived an experience of student-centered teaching. I refused to defend myself by replying to the questions and attacks which came from every quarter.

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* This paper is a verbatim reproduction of Chapter 13 in Carl R. Rogers' book, On Becoming a Person, Boston: Houghton Miffline, 1961. pp. 273-278

I endeavored to accept and empathize with the indignation, the frustration, the criticisms which they felt. I pointed out that I had merely expressed some very personal views of my own. I had not asked nor expected others to agree. After much storm, members of the group began expressing, more and more frankly, their own significant feelings about teaching - often feelings divergent from mine, often feelings divergent from each other. It was a very thought-provoking session. I question whether any participant in that session has ever forgotten it.

The most meaningful comment came from one of the conference members the next morning as I was preparing to leave the city. All he said was, "You kept more people awake last night!"

I took no steps to have this small fragment published. My views on psychotherapy had already made me a "controversial figure" among psychologists and psychiatrists. I had no desire to add educators to the list. The statement was widely duplicated however by members of the conference and several years later two journals requested permission to publish it.

After this lengthy historical build-up, you may find the statement itself a let-down. Personally I have never felt it to be incendiary. It still expresses some of my deepest views in the field of education.

*

I wish to present some very brief remarks, in the hope that if they bring forth any reaction from you, I may get some new light on my own ideas.

I find it a very troubling thing to think, particularly when I think about my own experiences and try to extract from those experiences the meaning that seems genuinely inherent in them. At first such thinking is very satisfying, because it seems to discover sense and pattern in a whole host of discrete events. But then it very often becomes dismaying, because I realize how ridiculous these thoughts, which have much value to me, would seem to most people. My impression is that if I try to find the meaning of my own experience it leads me, nearly always, in directions regarded as absurd.

So in the next three or four minutes, I will try to digest some of the meanings which have come to me from my classroom experience and the experience I have had in individual and group therapy. They are in no way intended as conclusions for someone else, or a guide to what others should do or be. They are the very tentative meanings, which my experience has had for me, and some of the bothersome questions which their absurdity rises. I will put each idea or meaning in a separate lettered paragraph, not because they are in any particular logical order, but because each meaning is separately important to me.

a. I may as well start with this one in view of the purposes of this conference. My experience has been that I cannot teach another person how to teach. To attempt it is for me, in the long run, futile.

b. It seems to me that anything that can be taught to another is relatively inconsequential, and has little or no significant influence on behavior. That sounds so ridiculous I can't help but question it at the same time that I present it.

c. I realize increasingly that I am only interested in learnings which significantly influence behavior. Quite possibly this is simply a personal idiosyncrasy.

d. I have come to feel that the only learning which significantly influences behavior is self-discovered, self appropriated learning.

e. Such self-discovered learning, truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, cannot be directly communicated to another. As soon as an individual tries to communicate such experience directly, often with a quite natural enthusiasm, it becomes teaching, and its results are inconsequential. It was some relief recently to discover that Søren Kierkegaard, the Danish philosopher, has found this too, in his own experience, and stated it very clearly a century ago. It made it seem less absurd.

f. As a consequence of the above, I realize that I have lost interest in being a teacher.

g. When I try to teach, as I do sometimes, I am appalled by the results, which seem a little more than inconsequential, because sometimes the teaching appears to succeed. When this happens I find that the results are damaging. It seems to cause the individual to distrust his own experience, and to stifle significant learning. Hence I have come to feel that the outcomes of teaching are either unimportant or hurtful.

h. When I look back at the results of my past teaching, the real results seem the same - either damage was done, or nothing significant occurred. This is frankly troubling.

i. As a consequence, I realize that I am only interested in being a learner, preferably learning things that matter, that have some significant influence on my own behavior.

j. I find it very rewarding to learn, in groups, in relationships with one person as in therapy, or by myself.

k. I find that one of the best, but most difficult ways for me to learn is to drop my own defensiveness, at least temporarily, and to try to understand the way in which his experience seems and feels to the other person.

l. I find that another way of learning for me is to state my own uncertainties, to try to clarify my puzzlements, and thus get closer to the meaning that my experience actually seems to have.

m. This whole train of experiencing, and the meanings that I have thus far discovered in it, seem to have launched me on a process which is both fascinating and at times a little frightening. It seems to mean letting my experience carry me on, in a direction which appears to be forward, toward goals that I can but dimly define, as I try to understand at least the current meaning of that experience. The sensation is that of floating with a complex stream of experience, with the fascinating possibility of trying to comprehend its ever changing complexity.

I am almost afraid I may seem to have gotten away from any discussion of learning, as well as teaching. Let me again introduce a practical note by saying that by themselves these interpretations of my own experience may sound queer and aberrant, but not particularly shocking. It is when I realize the implications that I shudder a bit at the distance I have come from the commonsense world that everyone knows is right. I can best illustrate that by saying that if the experiences of others had been the same as mine, and if they had discovered similar meanings in it, many consequences would be implied.

a. Such experience would imply that we would do away with teaching. People would get together if they wished to learn.

b. We would do away with examinations. They measure only the inconsequential type of learning.

c. The implication would be that we would do away with grades and credits for the same reason.

d. We would do away with degrees as a measure of competence partly for the same reason. Another reason is that a degree marks an end or a conclusion of something, and a learner is only interested in the continuing process of learning.

e. It would imply doing away with the exposition of conclusions, for we would realize that no one learns significantly from conclusions.

I think I had better stop there. I do not want to become too fantastic. I want to know primarily whether anything in my inward thinking as I have tried to describe it, speaks to anything in your experience of the classroom as you have lived it, and if so, what the meanings are that exist for you in your experience.

Paraphrase

A Basic Communication Skill for Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement most people will express agreement or disagreement without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intended. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intended.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information, or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or "Tell me more." or by saying "I don't understand." However, after he has elaborated you still face the same question. "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand. (See "On Misunderstanding".)

The skill: If you state in your own way what his remark conveys to you, the other can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you misunderstand, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. I will use the term "paraphrase" for any means of showing the other person what his idea or suggestion means to you.

Paraphrasing, then, is any way of revealing your understanding of the other person's comment in order to test your understanding.

An additional benefit of paraphrasing is that it lets the other know that you are interested in him. It is evidence that you do want to understand what he means.

If you can satisfy the other that you really do understand his point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Paraphrasing, thus, is crucial in attempting to bridge the interpersonal gap. (1) It increases the accuracy of communication, and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. (2) The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling -- your interest in the other, your concern to see how he views things.

Learning to paraphrase: People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may merely result in the illusion of mutual understanding as in the following example.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean teaching isn't the right job for him?
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Instead of trying to reword Sarah's statement Fred might have asked himself, "What does Sarah's statement mean to me?" In that case the interchange might have sounded like this.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean he is too harsh on the children? Maybe even cruel?
Sarah: Oh, no. I meant that he has such expensive tastes that he can't ever earn enough as a teacher.
Fred: Oh, I see. You think he should have gone into a field that would have insured him a higher standard of living.
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other means. And to satisfy this desire you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that the other can check whether it matches the meaning he intended to convey.

If the other's statement was general, it may convey something <u>specific</u> to you.

Larry: I think this is a very poor textbook.
You: Poor? You mean it has too many inaccuracies?
Larry: No, the text is accurate, but the book comes apart too easily.

Possibly the other's comment suggests an <u>example</u> to you.

Laura: This text has too many omissions; we shouldn't adopt it.
You: Do you mean, for example, that it contains nothing about the Negro's role in the development of America?
Laura: Yes, that's one example. It also lacks any discussion of the development of the arts in America.

If the speaker's comment was very specific, it may convey a <u>more general</u> idea to you.

Ralph: Do you have 25 pencils I can borrow for my class?
You: Do you just want something for them to write with? I have about 15 ball-point pens and 10 or 11 pencils.
Ralph: Great. Anything that will write will do.

Sometimes the other's idea will suggest its <u>inverse</u> or <u>opposite</u> to you.

Stanley: I think the Teacher's Union acts so irresponsibly because the the Administration has ignored them so long.
You: Do you mean that the T.U. would be less militant now if the Administration had consulted with them in the past?
Stanley: Certainly. I think the T.U. is being forced to more and more desperate measures.

To develop your skill in understanding others, try different ways of (1) conveying your interest in understanding what they mean, (2) revealing what the other's statements mean to you. Find out what kinds of responses are helpful ways of paraphrasing for you.

The next time someone is angry with you or is criticizing you, try to paraphrase until you can demonstrate that you understand what he is trying to convey as he intends it. What effect does this have on your feelings and on his?

Behavior Description

A Basic Communication Skill for Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: If you and another person are to improve the way you get along together, you must be able to convey what each does that affects the other. This is not easy. Most of us do not describe behavior clearly enough for others to know what actions we have in mind. Instead, we usually state what we infer about his movivations, attitudes and personality traits; often we are not even aware we are inferring rather than describing. Because we are so used to inferring we may not even know what the other did that lead to our inferences.

The skill of behavior description, then, depends upon accurate observation which, in turn, depends upon being aware of when you are describing and of when you are inferring.

The skill: A statement must pass two tests to be a behavior description.

1. A behavior description reports specific, observable actions rather than inferences or generalizations about the person's motives, feelings, attitudes or personality traits. It states what was observed. It does not infer about why.

Behavior Descriptions	Inferences
Fran walked out of the meeting 30 minutes before it was finished.	Fran was annoyed. Fran had an appointment elsewhere.
Bob's eyes filled with tears.	Bob had a cold. Bob felt sorry for himself.
Becky did not say anything when Bill asked her a question.	Becky did not hear Bill. Becky resented Bill's question. Becky was embarrassed.

2. A behavior description is non-evaluative; it does not say or imply what happened was good or bad, right or wrong. Evaluative statements (such as name-calling, accusations, judgements) usually express what the speaker is feeling and convey little about what behavior he observed.

Behavior Descriptions	Evaluative Statements
Jim talked more than others on this topic. Several times he cut other off before they finished.	Jim is rude. Jim wants to hog the center of attention.
"Bob, you've taken the opposite of most statements Harry has made today."	"Bob, you're just trying to show Harry up." "Bob, you're being stubborn."
Fran walked out of the meeting 30 minutes before it was finished.	Fran is irresponsible. Fran doesn't care about others.

Behavior Description	Evaluative Statement
"Sam, you cut in before I finished."	"Sam, you deliberately didn't let me finish."

The word "deliberately" implies that Sam knowingly and intentionally cut you off. All anybody can observe is that he did cut in before you had finished.

As an example of the difference a behavior description may make, let's suppose you tell me I am rude (a generalized trait) or that I don't care about your feelings (an inference about my motivation). Because I am not trying to be rude and because I feel I do care about your feelings, I don't know what the basis is for your negative evaluation of me. We certainly have not moved closer to a shared understanding. However, if you point out that several times in the past few minutes I have interrupted you and have overridden you before you could finish what you were saying, I get a clearer picture of what actions of mine were affecting you.

Several members of his group has told Ben that he was too arrogant. Ben was confused and puzzled by this judgement. He was confused because he didn't know what to do about it; he didn't know what it referred to. He was puzzled because he didn't feel arrogant or scornful of the others. In fact, he admitted he really felt nervous and unsure of himself. Finally, Joe said that Ben often laughed explosively after Ben made a comment that seemed to have no humorous aspects. Others immediately agreed this was the behavior that lead them to perceive Ben as looking down on them and, therefore, arrogant. Ben said he had not been aware of this.

The pattern, thus, was as follows. When he made a statement of which he was somewhat unsure, Ben felt insecure. ...Ben's feelings of insecurity expressed themselves in an explosive laugh after he made the statement. ... the other person perceived Ben as laughing at him. ...the other person felt put down and humiliated. ...the other's feeling of humiliation was expressed in the accusation that Ben was arrogant. Note that Ben had no awareness of his own behavior (the laugh) which was being misread until Joe accurately described what Ben was doing. Ben could then see that his laugh was a way of attempting to cope with his own feelings of insecurity.

To develop skill in describing behavior you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. You must force yourself to pay attention to what is observable and to hold inferences in abeyance. As you practice this you may find that many of your conclusions about others are based less on observable evidence than on your own feelings of affection, insecurity, irritation, jealousy, or fear. For example, accusations that attribute undesirable motives to another are usually expressions of the speaker's negative feelings toward the other.

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DESCRIPTION OF FEELINGS

A Basic Communication Skill for
Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: To communicate your own feelings accurately or to understand those of others is difficult.

First, expressions of emotion take many different forms. Feelings can express themselves in bodily changes, in action, and in words. (See attached diagram.)

Second, any specific expression of feeling may come from very different feelings. A blush, for example, may indicate that the person is feeling pleased, but it may also indicate that he feels annoyed, or embarrassed, or uneasy.

Likewise, a specific feeling does not always get expressed in the same way. For example, a child's feeling of affection for his teacher may lead him to blush when she stands near his desk, to touch her as he passes her, to watch her as she walks around the room, to tell her "You're nice," to bring his pet turtle to show her, etc.,--different forms of expression for the child's feeling of affection.

Communication of feelings, thus, is often inaccurate or even misleading. What looks like an expression of anger, for example, often turns out to result from hurt feelings or from fear.

A further obstacle to the accurate communication of feelings is that your perception of what another is feeling is based on so many different kinds of information. When somebody speaks, you notice more than just the words he says. You note his gestures, voice tone, posture, facial expression, etc. In addition, you are aware of the immediate present situation -- the context in which the interaction is occurring. You are aware of whether somebody is watching, for example. And so you make assumptions about how the situation influences what the other is feeling. Beyond all of this you also have expectations based on your past experiences with the other.

You make inferences from all of this information -- his words, nonverbal cues, the situational context, your expectations of the other. These inferences are influenced by your own current emotional state. What you perceive the other to be feeling then, often depends more upon what you are feeling (e.g., to be afraid of or wishing for) than upon the other person's actions or words. For example, if you are feeling guilty about something, you may perceive others as angry with you. If you are feeling depressed and discouraged about yourself, others may seem to be expressing disapproval of you.

And so -- communicating your own and understanding the feelings of others is an extremely difficult task. And yet, if you wish others to respond to you as a person, you must help them understand how you feel. Likewise, if you are concerned about the other as a person and about your relationship with him, you must try to understand his emotional reactions.

Description of Feelings

The skill: Although we usually try to describe our ideas clearly and accurately, we often do not try to describe our feelings clearly. Feelings get expressed in many different ways, but we do not usually attempt to identify the feeling itself.

One way to describe a feeling is to identify or name it. "I feel angry." "I feel embarrassed." "I feel comfortable with you." However, we do not have enough names or labels to encompass the broad range of human emotions, and so we invent other ways to describe our feelings, such as the use of similes. "I feel like a tiny frog in a huge pond." A girl, whose friendly overture had just been rebuffed, said, "I feel like I have just had an arm amputated."

A third way to describe a feeling is to report what kind of action the feeling urges you to do. "I feel like hugging and hugging you." "I'd like to slap you." "I wish I could walk off and leave you."

In addition, many figures of speech serve as descriptions of feeling. "I just swallowed a bushel of spring sunshine."

Describing your own feelings: You try to make clear what feelings you are experiencing by identifying them. The statement must (1) refer to "I", "me", or "my," and (2) specify some kind of feeling by name, simile, action urge, or other figure of speech.

The following examples show the relation between two kinds of expressions of feeling, (1) those that describe what the speaker is feeling, and (2) those that do not. Notice that expressions of feeling which describe the speaker's emotional state are more precise, less capable of misinterpretation, and, thus, convey more accurately what feelings are affecting the speaker.

Expressing feeling by describing your emotional state	Expressing feeling without describing your emotional state
"I feel embarrassed." "I feel pleased." "I feel annoyed."	Blushing and saying nothing.
"I feel angry!" "I'm worried about this." "I feel hurt by what you said."	Suddenly becoming silent in the midst of a conversation.
"I enjoy her sense of humor." "I respect her abilities and competence." "I love her but I feel I shouldn't say so."	"She's a wonderful person."
"I hurt too much to hear any more." "I feel angry at myself." "I'm angry with you."	"Shut up!!!"

Because emotional states express themselves simultaneously in words, in actions, and in physiological changes, a person may convey contradictory messages about what he is feeling. For example, his actions (a smile or laugh) may contradict his words (that he is angry). The clearest emotional communication occurs when the speaker's description of what he is feeling matches and, thus, amplifies what is being conveyed by his actions and other nonverbal expressions of feeling.

Description of Feelings

The aim in describing your own feelings is to start a dialogue that will improve your relationship with the other. After all, others need to know how you feel if they are to take your feelings into account. Negative feelings are indicator signals that something may be going wrong in a relationship with another person. To ignore negative feelings is like ignoring a warning light that indicates that an electrical circuit is overloaded. Negative feelings are a signal that the two of you need to check for misunderstanding and faulty communication.

After discussing how each of you sees the situation or your relationship, you may discover that your feelings resulted from false perceptions of the situation and of his motives. In this case, your feelings would probably change. However, the other may discover that his actions are arousing feelings in you that he wasn't aware of -- feelings that others beside you might experience in response to his behavior - and he may change.

In short, describing your feelings should not be an effort to coerce the other into changing so that you won't feel as you do. Rather you report your inner state as just one more piece of information that is necessary if the two of you are to understand and improve your relationship.

Perception check: You describe what you perceive to be the other's inner state in order to check whether you do understand what he feels. That is, you test to see whether you have decoded his expressions of feeling accurately. You transform his expressions of feeling into a tentative description of his feeling. A good perception check conveys this message, "I want to understand your feelings -- is this (making a description of his feelings) the way you feel?"

Examples:

"I get the impression you are angry with me. Are you?"
(NOT: "Why are you so angry with me?" This is mind reading, not perception checking.)

"Am I right that you feel disappointed that nobody commented on your suggestion?"

"I'm not sure whether your expression means that my comment hurt your feelings, irritated you, or confused you."

Note that a perception check (1) describes the other's feelings, and (2) does not express disapproval or approval. It merely conveys, "This is how I understand your feelings. Am I accurate?"

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CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS

Rarely do two persons talk openly about their reactions to each other's actions. Most of us withhold our feelings about the other (even in relations that are very important or dear to us) because we fear hurting the other, making him angry, or being rejected by him. Because we don't know how to be constructively open we say nothing. The other continues totally unaware of our reaction to his actions. Likewise, we continue ignorant of the effect our actions produces in him. As a result many relationships that could be productive and enjoyable gradually founder and sink under the accumulated load of tiny annoyances, hurt feelings and misunderstandings that were never talked about openly.

The following points increase the probability that openness will improve a relationship rather than harming it.

1. Openness must stem from a desire to improve your relationship with the other. Openness is not an end in itself but a means to an end. We are not open with people about whom we do not care. When attempting to elicit an open sharing of reactions to each other, try to convey that this encounter indicated that you value your relation with the other and wish to improve it because it is important.

2. Aim at creating a shared understanding of your relationship. You wish to know how the other perceives and feels about your actions. You wish him to know how you perceive and feel about his actions. (See "The Interpersonal Gap.") Each of you, thus, will view the relationship from more nearly the same viewpoint.

3. Recognize that openness involves risk-taking. You cannot receive a maximum guarantee with minimum risk. Your willingness to risk your self-esteem, being rejected or hurt by the other, etc. depends upon the importance of the relationship to you. Likewise, you cannot ask that the other guarantee not to become angry or feel hurt by your comments. The important point is that you are willing to risk his being himself -- whatever he feels -- in the effort to make the encounter into a learning situation for both of you.

4. Although the discussion may become intense, spirited, angry, or tearful, it should be noncoercive and not an attempt to get the other to change. Each should use the information as he sees fit. The attitude should not be "Who's wrong and who's right?" but "What can each of us learn from this discussion that will make our working together more productive and more satisfying?"

   As a result of the discussion one, both, or neither of you may act differently in the future. Each, however, will act with fuller awareness of the effect of his actions on the other as well as with more understanding of the other's intentions. Any change, thus, will be self-chosen rather than to placate or submit to the other.

5. Timing is important. Reactions should be shared as close to the behavior that aroused them as possible so that the other will know exactly what behavior is being discussed. For example, behavior during the encounter itself can be commented on. E.g., "What you just said is the kind of remark that makes me feel pushed away."

6. Disturbing situations should be discussed as they occur rather than saving up massive accumulations of hurt feelings and annoyance and dumping them on the other all at one time.

7. Paraphrase the other's comments about you to make sure you understand them as he intends them. Check to make sure the other understands your comments in the way you intend them.

8. Statements are more helpful if they are . . .

... Specific rather than general. "You bumped my cup." rather than "You never watch where you're going."
... Tentative rather than absolute. "You seem unconcerned about Jimmy." rather than "You don't give a damn about Jimmy and never will."
... Informing rather than ordering. "I hadn't finished yet." rather than "Stop interrupting me."

9. Use perception-checking responses to insure that you are not making false assumptions about the other's feelings. "I thought you weren't interested in trying to understand my idea. Was I wrong?" "Did my last statement bother you?"

10. The least helpful kinds of statements are those that sound as if they are information about the other person but are really expressions of your own feelings coming out as...

...judgments about the other. "You never pay any attention."
...name-calling, trait labelling. "You're a phony." "You're too rude."
...accusations - imputing undesirable motives to the other. "You enjoy putting people down." "You always have to be in the center of attention."
...commands and orders. "Stop laughing." "Don't talk so much."
...sarcasm. "You always look on the bright side of things, don't you?" (when the opposite is meant.)

11. The most helpful kinds of information about yourself and your reactions are...

Behavior descriptions: reporting the specific acts of the other that affect you.

"You cut in before I had finished my sentence."

Describing your own feelings:

"I feel blue." "I like what you just said."

You should try to describe your feelings in such a way that they are seen as temporary and capable of change rather than as permanent attitudes. For example, "At this point I'm very annoyed with you." rather than "I dislike you and I always will."

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WAYS OF LOOKING AT GROUPS

I. The Purpose of the Small Training Group

The Small Group is the basic training unit for that portion of our Seminar which deals with the goals of developing understanding and awareness to the behavior of others and of ourselves in a working problem solving group situation.

II. Facts and Inferences in Small Groups

In small groups there is a distinction that can be made between facts and inferences. I would like to emphasize that our behavior in groups is determined both by facts that we have plus some inferences we are making about the other persons in the group. Listed below are some of the categories that fall under the heading of facts and inferences:

A. Facts

1. Objective Information. There are certain things which we can take as objective information in a group such as the number of people in the group; the characteristics of individuals such as age, sex, height; characteristics of group interaction such as how much each person participates, the kind of previous experience people have had, and the nature of the task which the group is working on. Such facts as these are usually strong determinants of how each person is going to behave in the group.

2. Feelings. A different set of facts consists of the feelings and emotions that members of a group may be having at a given time. Thus, it is a fact that a person is angry, mad, elated, bored, or disgusted. Although the person may or may not be justified in feeling a particular way, it is nevertheless a fact that he is feeling a particular emotion at a given point in time and these feelings, in turn, are important determinants of behavior in groups.

3. Reactions. Another kind of fact closely related to feelings are the reactions we have to specific other persons in the group. We are attracted to some people, repulsed from others, indifferent to some, impressed with the knowledge of a member, or convinced that we cannot communicate with or influence a person. Again, there may or may not be justification for our reaction to another person, but it is a fact that at that specific time we do have that reaction, and we behave accordingly. We tend to talk more to people we are attracted to, we avoid those people we feel we cannot influence, or attack those people that we react to negatively.

B. Inferences

There are certain kinds of inferences, hunches, or tentative hypotheses which we have about people which are not necessarily established as facts.

1. Motivations. We constantly make assumptions about what is motivating another person to act in a particular way. We may sometimes attribute different motivations to the same kind of behavior. For instance, we sometimes see silent people as angry, sometimes as sleepy, bored, or confused, and act on our assumptions about their motivations without clearly checking to see whether these assumptions are correct. Although it is a fact that we are making a particular assumption a person's motivations, that assumption oftentimes is an inference which may or may not be correct.

2. Stereotypes. A second kind of inference that we make consists of the ways in which we stereotype other people. Because a person has one characteristic, we assume that he has other characteristics. We may assume that women are more concerned about the tender emotions of love and affection and men more concerned about getting a particular job done; or we may assume because a boy has a duck-tail haircut that he is associating with other boys who are likely to get him in trouble. We may associate Ivy League clothes with being a college student or a particular age group with being wiser than another. We may assume that members of a particular religious faith are more likely to behave in one way than another.

3. Impressions. We have impressions of other people based on the way that they have behaved, and although these impressions may be correct or incorrect, they do determine the way that we respond. We may see other people as stupid, wise, concerned, gullible, aggressive, etc. These impressions are a kind of stereotype, but are generally based on a person's behavior in a given situation rather than some other characteristic such as groups they belong to or physical traits.

III. Some Ways of Looking at Groups

The following six dimensions represent a few of the ways we can look at our own feelings as well as those of other members of the group, either in our Training Group or classroom situation, or any other group that we belong to:

A. Participation. An important characteristic of any group is how easy or difficult is it for people to participate. In the classroom setting, we may examine how easy we make it for the child to talk freely and openly, while in the Training Group one can look at whether or not we encourage other members to speak freely or whether we tend to discourage their participation by not supporting comments that they do make or giving them the impression that we do not value their contributions.

B. Listening Ability. One of the most difficult skills in a group is to listen in an alert and understanding way to other persons. This includes not only the content of what they say, but the way that they are feeling. We oftentimes fail to listen because we are trying to formulate what we want to say ourselves or because we do not pick up the subtle cues such as facial expressions or gestures which may be as important as the words a person uses.

C. Willingness to Express Feelings. In some groups it is quite acceptable to express feelings and emotions openly. Most often this occurs in groups such as the family. In many of our work groups it can be equally valuable to express one's feelings and emotions, although we may assume that this would be unacceptable to other persons. I am proposing that one criterian of a mature group is one in which people can freely express their feelings and emotions as well as their ideas and opinions.

D. Understanding of Feelings of Others. One can look at groups to see how well people can empathize with other people and be sensitive to their feelings. In the classroom, it is important to be able to understand whether a child is afraid, hostile, lonely, cocky, or trying to con the teaching staff. In a mature group people become more and more sensitive and are better able to see the world through the other person's eyes, even though they may disagree with that person's point of view.

E. Trust. One of the central dimensions of group life is how much people trust one another so that honest, authentic communication can take place. One of the most difficult problems in the treatment of delinquent youth is to build a trusting relationship with them, and similarly in small groups it is a problem to build trust so that people are presenting their real feelings and thoughts rather than some kind of facade which they feel would be more acceptable.

F. Clarity of Purpose. It is possible to look at groups according to how clear members see the goals and purposes of the group and how much agreement there is among members. Where people see different purposes and goals or are unclear, there will inevitably be a great deal of waste motion and misunderstanding in the group. One of the central problems of a teacher is to communicate to the child and parents the purpose and goals of the school's curriculum. Unless there is this clarity, one can be sure that there will not be much commitment on the part of the child.

WHAT TO OBSERVE IN A GROUP

One way to learn in a lab is to observe and analyze what is happening in one's T Group. All of us have spent our lives in groups of various sorts -- the family, gang, team, work group, etc., but rarely have we taken the time to stop and observe what was going on in the group, or why the members were behaving the way they were. One of our main goals here is to become better observers and better participants.

But what do we look for? What is there to see in a group?

I. Content vs. Process

When we observe what the group is talking about, we are focusing on the content. When we try to observe how the group is handling its communication, i.e., who talks how much or who talks to whom, we are focusing on group process.

Most topics about the back-home situation emphasize the content -- "what is good leadership," "how can I motivate my subordinate," "how can we make meetings more effective," and concern issues which are "there and then" in the sense of being abstract, future or past oriented and not involving us directly. In focusing on group process, we are looking at what our group is doing in the "here and now," how it is working in the sense of its present procedures and organization.

In fact, the content of the conversation is often the best clue as to what process issue may be on people's minds, when they find it difficult to confront the issue directly. For example:

Content	Process
1. Talking about problems of authority back home may mean	that there is a leadership struggle going on in the T Group
2. Talking about how bad group meetings usually are at the plant may mean	that members are dissatisfied with the performance of their own T Group
3. Talking about staff men who don;t really help anybody may mean	dissatisfaction with the trainer's role in the group.

At a simpler level looking at process really means to focus on what is going on in the group and trying to understand it in terms of other things that have gone on in the group.

II. Communication

One of the easiest aspects of group process to observe is the pattern of communication:

1. Who talks? For how long? How often?

2. Who do people look at when they talk?

   a. Single others, possibly potential supporters
   b. Scanning the group
   c. No one.

3. Who talks after whom, or who interrupts whom?

4. What style of communication is used (assertions, questions, tone of voice, gestures, etc.)?

The kinds of observations we make give us clues to other important things which may be going on in the group such as who leads whom or who influences whom.

III. Decision-Making Procedures

Whether we are aware of it or not, groups are making decisions all the time, some of them consciously and in reference to the major tasks at hand, some of them without much awareness and in reference to group procedures or standards of operation. It is important to observe how decisions are made in a group in order to assess the appropriateness of the decision to the matter being decided on, and in order to assess whether the consequences of given methods are really what the group members bargained for.

Group decisions are notoriously hard to undo. When someone says, "Well, we decided to do it, didn't we?" any budding opposition is quickly immobilized. We can only undo the decision if we reconstruct it and understand how we made it and test whether this method was appropriate or not.

Some methods by which groups make decisions:

1. The Plop: "I think we should introduce ourselves" .... silence

2. The Self-Authorized Agenda: "I think we should introduce ourselves, my name is Joe Smith ....."

3. The Handclasp: "I wonder if it would be helpful if we introduced ourselves?" "I think it would, my name is Pete Jones ....."

4. "Does anyone object?" or "we all agree."

5. Majority-Minority voting.

6. Polling: "Let's see where everyone stands, what do you think?"

7. Consensus Testing: Genuine exploration to test for opposition and to determine whether opposition feels strongly enough not to be willing to implement decision; not necessarily unanimity, but essential agreement by all.

IV. Task - Maintenance - Self-oriented behavior

Behavior in the group can be viewed from the point of view of what its purpose or function seems to be. When a member says something, is he primarily trying to get the group task accomplished (task), or is he trying to improve or patch up some relationships among members (maintenance), or is he primarily meeting some personal need or goal without regard to the group's problems (self-oriented)?

As the group grows and member needs become integrated with group goals, there will be less self-oriented behavior and more task or maintenance behavior. What kinds of categories can we identify?

Types of behavior relevant to the group's fulfillment of its task:

1. Initiating: Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure or ideas for solving a problem...

2. Seeking information or opinions: Requesting facts; seeking relevant information about group concern... Asking for expressions of feeling; requesting a statement or estimate; soliciting expressions of value; seeking suggestions and ideas...

3. Giving information or opinion: Offering facts; providing relevant information about group concern...
Stating a belief about a matter before the group; giving suggestions and ideas.

4. Clarifying and Elaborating: Interpreting ideas or suggestions; clearing up confusions; defining terms; indicating alternatives and issues before the group...

5. Summarizing: Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject...

6. Consensus Testing: Asking to see if group is nearing a decision; sending up trial balloon to test a possible conclusion...

Types of behavior relevant to the group's remaining in good working order, having a good climate for task work, and good relationships which permit maximum use of member resources, i.e., group maintenance:

1. Harmonizing: Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tension; getting people to explore differences...

2. Gate Keeping: Helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others; suggesting procedures that permit sharing remarks.

3. Encouraging: Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; indicating by facial expression or remark the acceptance of others' contributions...

4. Compromising: When own idea or status is involved in a conflict, offering a compromise which yields status; admitting error; modifying in interest of group cohesion or growth...

5. Standard Setting and Testing: Testing whether group is satisfied with its procedures or suggesting procedures, pointing out explicit or implicit norms which have been set to make them available for testing...

Every group needs both kinds of behavior and needs to work out an adequate balance of task and maintenance activities.

V. Emotional Issues; Causes of Self-Oriented Emotional Behavior

The processes described so far deal with the group's attempts to work, to solve problems of task and maintenance, but there are many forces active in groups which disturb work, which represent a kind of emotional underworld or under-current in the stream of group life. These underlying emotional issues produce a variety of emotional behaviors which interfere with or are destructive of effective group functioning. They cannot be ignored or wished away, however. Rather, they must be recognized, their causes must be understood, and as the group develops, conditions must be created which permit these same emotional energies to be channeled in the direction of group effort.

What are these issues or basic causes?

1. The problem of identity: Who am I in this group? Where do I fit in? What kind of behavior is acceptable here?

2. The problem of goels and needs: What do I want from the group? Can the group goals be made consistent with my goals? What have I to offer to the group?

3. The problem of power, control, and influence: Who will control what we do? How much power and influence do I have?

4. The problem of intimacy: How close will we get to each other? How personal? How much can we trust each other and how can we achieve a greater level of trust?

What kinds of behaviors are produced in response to these problems?

1. Dependency-counterdependency: Leaning on or resisting anyone in the group who represents authority, especially the trainer.

2. Fighting and Controlling: Asserting personal dominance, attempting to get own way regardless of others.

3. Withdrawing: Trying to remove the sources of uncomfortable feelings by psychologically leaving the group.

4. Pairing up: Seeking out one or two supporters and forming a kind of emotional sub-group in which the members protect and support each other.

These are not the only kinds of things which can be observed in a group. What is important to observe will vary with what the group is doing, the needs of the observer and his purposes, and many other factors. The main point, however, is that improving our skills in observing what is going on in the group will provide us with important data for understanding groups and increasing our effectiveness within them.

GROUP ROLES

WORK ROLES

1. Initiator: Proposing tasks, goals or actions; defining group problems; suggesting a procedure.

2. Informer: Offering facts; giving expression of feeling; giving an opinion.

3. Clarifier: Interpreting ideas or suggestions; defining terms; clarifying issues before group.

4. Summarizer: Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions; offering a decision or conclusion for group to consider.

5. Reality Tester: Making a critical analysis of an idea; testing an idea against some data trying to see if the idea would work.

MAINTENENCE ROLES

1. Harmonizer: Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tension; getting people to explore differences.

2. Gate Keeper: Helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others; suggesting procedures that permit sharing remarks.

3. Consensus Tester: Asking to see if a group is nearing a decision; sending up a trial balloon to test a possible conclusion.

4. Encourager: Being friendly, warm and responsive to others: indicating by facial expression or remark the acceptance of others' contributions.

5. Compromiser: When his own idea or status is involved in a conflict offering a compromise which yields status; admitting error: modifying in interest of group cohension or growth.

GROUP ROLES

BLOCKING ROLES

1. Aggressor: Deflating other's status; attacking the group or its values; joking in a barbed or semi-concealed way.

2. Blocker: Disagreeing and opposing beyond "reason"; resisting stubbornly the group's wish for personally oriented reasons. Using hidden agenda to thwart the movement of a group.

3. Dominater: Asserting authority or superiority to manipulate group or certain of its members; interrupting contributions of others; controlling by means of flattery or other forms of patronizing behavior.

4. Playboy: Making a display in "playboy" fashion of one's lack of involvement; "abondoning" the group while remaining physically with it; seeking recognition in ways not relevant to group task.

5. Avoidance Behavior: Pursuing special interests not related to task. Staying off subject to avoid commitment. Preventing group from facing up to controversy.

TO THE PRESIDENT

The year's program for a NASC Chapter should be carefully planned, well directed, and carried to completion. Success depends upon the leadership, particularly, the leadership provided by the Chapter President.

The following suggestions are offered:

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRESIDENT

A. A background of knowledge for effective work will require familiarization with -

1. The Constitution and Bylaws of -

   a. the Chapter
   b. the local teachers association
   c. the state NASC
   d. the state education association
   e. the National Education Association

2. The financial status of the Chapter.

   a. Amount of money received and spent during the previous year.
   b. Estimated revenues for the coming year.

3. The status of membership in the Chapter.

   a. Number of members
   b. Possible membership
   c. Method of enrolling members and affiliating

4. An understanding of the program and activities in the previous year.

   (Obtained through conferences with the retiring president, other officers, and committee chairpersons and minutes of previous year)

5. Parliamentary procedures

B. Plans for action will be initiated by the president through

1. Calling a meeting of the Executive Committee

   (The Executive Committee is the: president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and any other members provided by the constitution. The retiring president should be a member ex-officio)

a. Convenient time and place for meeting
b. Ample time for decisions
c. Carefully planned agenda

(1) Review previous year's activities
(2) Determine what plans shall be set up
(3) Decide upon a membership program
(4) Determine the number of committees needed
(5) Select the names for committee positions

(a) Member must be dependable, enthusiastic, and interested in professional activity.
(b) Chairman of committees should aid president in the selection of the personnel on their respective committees.
(c) Placement of members is determined by position in which they are best fitted to serve.

(It is suggested that the number on a committee be either 3, 5, or 7)

(6) Decide upon the number of Executive Committee meetings. (There should be at least four during the year)

2. Setting up the organization for committee work

a. Members will be invited to serve by personal message or letter. An answer should be received.
b. Chairperson of committees will be carefully instructed in the tasks to be performed.
c. President will attend the first meeting of each committee and follow the work being done during the year.
d. EVERY COMMITTEE MUST MEET.

(1) To discuss problems
(2) To plan for solutions
(3) To assign duties
(4) To set up a <u>time schedule</u> for accomplishment of duties

e. The chairperson is responsible for the accomplishments of tasks assigned to the committee. (If the members fail to do the work assigned them, the chairperson must see that it is done)
f. The president must guide and direct the work to completion. Frequently presidents say the work failed because a chairperson didn't do the job. (If so, the president must see that it is done; this is the penalty the president must pay for an obviously poor selection.)
g. A general meeting for <u>all</u> committees is an excellent way to begin the year's work.

(1) A general session in which the president explains the association's plans for the year to <u>all</u> committee members.
(2) General session then breaks up into separate committee meetings.
(3) Separate committees reconvene in general session for reports from each chairperson.

C. The president keeps files of plans, projects, and communications received, and urges all persons in responsible positions to do likewise.

(The work of a Chapter is continuous and the files which have been carefully kept should be handed on to the succeeding officers.

D. The president sees that all committees prepare reports and make recommendations for next year's work. These reports will be given to a general meeting of the association or to the Executive Committee.

E. The president sees that all communications requiring replies are answered promptly.

(Each Chapter should have official stationery which carries the status of its affiliation with the state and national associations.)

F. The president promotes professional affiliations with:

1. State
2. NASC

G. The president sees to it that plans are set up to promote the Unified Membership Campaign.

1. Building a strong and active Chapter, working as an integral part of the state and national associations.
2. Promoting favorable sentiment for adequate and unified dues for our national, state and local Chapter. Collections should be made by the local Chapter.
3. Striving for a membership goal for 90% or better of the counselors in the unified profession.
4. Integrating committee work with the state and national associations. (All NASC affiliated groups have the opportunity to appoint from their groups persons to sefve as NASC Contacts for the various committees.)

LEADERSHIP SKILLS

PREFACE

The intent of this leadership packet is to provide the Counselor leader with ideas on elements for effective leadership seminars.

The packet is a compilation of exercises and ideas from the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

Over the years, these ideas have proven effective for individuals to look at themselves and the job they need to do as a leader of people. All elements work effectively, the issue is to decide what are the goals and objectives of a particular seminar and to apply the particular elements to meet the defined objectives.

· NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

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LEARNING IS A COMPLEX PROCESS INVOLVING THE WHOLE PERSON, NOT JUST THE MIND.

Learning may be defined as a relatively lasting modification of behavior resulting from a learning experience. It is an internal process that takes place wholly within the learner and involves the intellect, the feelings, the values, and the interest. Learning occurs when an individual experiences a problem or recognizes a gap between where he/she is and where he/she wants to be, and then institutes a self-inquiry in which he/she draws on whatever resources are available to acquire the learnings necessary to solve the problems or close the gap.

GROUNDRULES FOR EXPERIENCE-BASED LEARNING

1. Willingness to extend one's self -- to reach out and meet someone who is new and different.

2. Willingness to communicate as openly and as honestly and as directly as possible.

3. Willingness to tap and understand the emotions which underlie your behavior and share those feelings where appropriate.

4. Willingness to experiment with yourself and your behavior.

5. Willingness to give and receive feedback.

6. Willingness to look at how the group is operating and assume responsibility for its growth and productivity, observing the group's climate, member involvement, and decision-making process.

Criteria For Useful Feedback

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative.
2. It is specific rather than general.
3. It takes into account the needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback.
4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about.
5. It is solicited, rather than imposed.
6. It is well-timed.
7. It is checked to insure clear communication.
8. It is checked for accuracy.

COUNSELOR IMPACT FOR CHANGE

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS

Leadership Development

Group Dynamics and Interaction

How effective is the leadership of counselors at the local and state level? Do we have a good climate for developing a leadership group with understanding and skills for effective interpersonal communication and relations? Can the leadership discuss things productively, express themselves freely, listen intelligently? Do they accept differences of opinion, work well as a group, take proper responsibility for program planning and reresponsibility? Can they evaluate their own progress?

This section presents a step-by-step design for activity aimed at improving human interaction. The goal of the series is to assist the key leadership to increase their own ability to be aware of and understand their own and other's views of the world, develop skills in group planning and decision-making, and enable counselors to discuss controversial issues.

The items in the series are reprinted and adapted with the permission of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, and Today's Education, the Journal of the National Education Association. The material has been developed by Dorothy J. Mial, Director of the Center for the Development of Educational Leadership, and Stanley I. Jacobson, Director of the Division of Information Services, NTL Instute for Applied Behavioral Science.

THE FISHBOWL*

Holding a useful discussion with 25 or 30 people is not easy. Usually, a few counselors will be active while the rest sit it out. Many people have difficulty in getting individuals to address each other, to stick to the topic, to listen, and to help others participate.

The Fishbowl is deceptively simple but effective structure for discussion that spreads participation and helps each person become more aware of the part he/she and others play in a discussion.

The Fishbowl is made up of an inner and an outer circle. After the circles form, the group is told that the inner group will discuss a topic while the outer group observes how the discussion is going. Observers, divided into subgroups, are given specific tasks related to what helps and what hinders the discussion.

When the discussion is finished, the outer group shares and discusses its observations with the inner. Then the two groups change places and repeat the procedure. Everyone has a chance to be both participant and observer -- to discuss the topic and to become more aware of what happens during a discussion.

Advance planning is important. The leader must decide which planning tasks they should do and which can be shared with a planning committee. First, they should choose four or five counselors for the committee. Then they should convert it, make sure everyone knows what they are going to do and why, and assign the group tasks. The leader (and the committee of counselors) must do five tasks before the scheduled time of discussion:

1. Choose the topic for discussion. Questions like -- "What are some of the concerns of counselors today?" "Why should or should not educators be involved with social and political issues?" "What are some of the new demands being placed on counselors?" "What is the role, if any, of counselors in the decision-making process of the School District?" The only restrictions are that the topic should <u>not</u> call for or result in a decision for action by the group. The discussion should be on a specific pre-determined topic.

2. Decide what the leaders role will be, if any.

3. Decide who will give the instructions during the discussions and who will be the timekeeper. (Careful timing is important.)

4. Choose some simple method of dividing the group into two groups. It is best to mix male and female, talkers and shy ones. Any random method should work, such as dividing by halves the alphabet or putting half the females and half the males into each group.

5. Decide how to form the inner and outer groups.

The actual Fishbowl session takes place in five "Acts," preceded by a "Getting Ready" period. A typical Fishbowl might go like this:

Getting Ready (5 minutes)

The leader or chosen chairperson briefly explains the purpose of the exercise and tells how it will work. Then he divides the participants into two groups: "Everyone whose last name begins with A to M will be in the inner circle; the rest in the outer."

He has the class form the two circles. "Members of the outer circle should listen to and watch the discussion in silence. Here are your assignments. Joe, Henry, Alice, and Bill, count how many put in their two cents' worth. Mary, Doris, John, and Harry, note which people look as if they want to say something but don't. Bob, Karen, Millie, and Gene, keep track of who gets interrupted and who does the interrupting."

Act I (8 to 10 minutes)

The inner group begins its discussion while the outer group observes. Brief silences may occur, but ordinarily a member of the group will break the silence. If it seems that no one has any more to say, the chairperson can move to Act II.

Act II (5 to 7 minutes)

The timekeeper calls time on the discussion. First the observers report on what they saw and heard, while the inner group listens silently.

Act III (8 to 10 minutes) and Act IV (5 to 7 minutes)

The groups reverse the roles and repeat Acts I and II.

Act V - Evaluation

The chairperson should ask: "(a) What things helped the discussion? (b) What hurt it?" Have each participant write out his answers. Collect these.

If time permits, counselors can discuss what helped or hurt the discussion.

Pointers for the leader or chairperson:

In the evaluation, the leader might ask, "Why is it worthwhile to have this kind of discussion?" The leader can add specifics that the group doesn't mention. (The leader could point out that we discover whether we are going too fast, whether instructions are clear, and how one person's behavior affects others.)

In summing up what helps and what hinders a discussion, the leader should mention that discussion is better when we

---listen and build on what has been said before
---accept other people's opinion as valid for them

ACCENT ON LISTENING *

Skillful listening is as essential to effective communication as clear expression. "You didn't hear what I said!" "Did you hear how angry Helen sounded?" "That may be what he said, but what was he really trying...? These familiar comments illustrate that when people talk, they expect their listeners to hear more than the actual words -- to listen not only for content (facts and figures), but for feeling (how what the speaker is talking about affects him), and for process (what the speaker is trying to accomplish by what he says).

All three of these aspects of listening are important. Listening for content is obviously necessary for understanding a task. Listening for feeling is a basic ability in those who are sensitive to others. Listening for process makes appropriate responses possible. All are required for creative human relationships and productive group work.

What follows is designed to help people become more skillful listeners. They can be applied to a variety of situations. Local association leaders can use several of the activities during a single period, schedule them as a series of special events, or make them a regular feature of leadership development.

The Echo Game is an enjoyable way to learn that listening effectively for content is an active task, not a passive one. This game can be played in any seating arrangement, though it will provide a more valuable experience if the group sits in a circle, while part serve as participants, part as observers. The game requires 15 to 20 minutes.

Start a discussion on a subject of special interest to students. Current events, spectator sports, drugs, and a new student craze. After the discussion is under way, interrupt it and tell the group that from then on, before anyone speaks, he must first repeat what the previous speaker has said, to that person's satisfaction. Then resume the discussion.

After the game, hold a brief discussion on how the echoing rule affected individuals. (Many will be amazed to discover what poor listeners they are -- often because they are so absorbed in what they are going to say at the first opportunity that they only half listen.) If the group was divided initially, participants and observers can change places and the game can be repeated.

A variation on the Echo Game encourages participants to build on one another's ideas. Start a discussion and interrupt it as before, but this time instruct the students that they may speak only if they are going to add to or comment on the last speaker's ideas.

In all these situations, it will be easier for everyone to participate fully and profit from the activity if the uncritical spirit of a game prevails.

Listening for process includes noticing such things as who takes initiative, who talks to whom, whose ideas seem most influential, and who seems to have

some hidden motive for speaking or acting as he does. The Fishbowl technique provides a good medium for training in listening for process. While the inner circle is holding a discussion, members of the outer circle, divided into subgroups, listen for different aspects of the process. The observers then report what they have heard, the inner and outer groups discuss the observations, and the groups then change places.

In a variation, each outer-group member observes the inner-group member opposite him, listening for what the person is trying to accomplish in the discussion and how successful he is. For example, one observer might notice that his subject tries to force his ideas on the group, a second might see that his subject tries to encourage others, and a third might perceive that his subject tries to get a word in but without success.

Listening for process can also be practiced without an observing group. After a period of discussion (perhaps 10 minutes) the group can be asked to stop and consider issues like those mentioned above with the idea of making further discussion more productive.

The Fishbowl technique can also be used to train listening for feeling. To make the task easier, prepare ditto sheets on which there are five circles, each with a line drawing of a face: one smiling, one frowning, one serious, one sad, and one blank. Assign each outer-group member to the inner-group member opposite him and give him the task of listening for how that person feels. After the discussion, give each person one of the ditto sheets. Instruct inner-group members to put a check on the face that most nearly corresponds to the way he himself felt during the discussion. Each outer-group member marks the face that most corresponds to the way the person he observed seemed to feel. After marking the faces, observer and subject pair off to compare their ideas for a few minutes, then the entire group talks about the role of feelings in a group discussion.

This technique can also be used without any observers. After a discussion is started, each member of the group is assigned the task of observing the feelings of the person opposite him in the circle. At the end of the discussion, each person marks two faces on the sheet -- one representing his own feelings and one representing the feelings of the person opposite him. The two then compare their observations.

Any of the listening activities can be followed by a discussion of the three kinds of listening and how they affect communication. The activities can be repeated from time to time with continuing interest and increasing benefits to the students.

To evaluate these activities, try this reactionnaire.

1. How much did I enjoy this activity?
   not at all____ a little____ some____ very much____
2. How much did I learn about listening from this activity?
   nothing____ a little____ more than a little____ very much____

Tabulate and report the results and encourage the participants to discuss them.

B R A I N S T O R M I N G *

Planning begins with ideas, and brainstorming is one way to produce them. Brainstorming can be the first step in planning a special event, working to improve curriculum or increasing counselor involvment in the decision-making bodies of the Association. Eventually ideas have to be weighed and refined, of course, but evaluation is a second step. If we collapse the two into one--produce ideas and evaluate at the same time--we may reject potentially creative notions before they have had a fair hearing.

Brainstorming, introduced by the late Alex F. Osborn, an advertising executive, has been used successfully in business, industry, and government as well as in education. In recent years, it has also been used as a tool in studies of creativity. Brainstorming separates idea production from evaluation by calling for rapid, noncritical listing of any and all ideas--no matter how wild--on a given topic. By encouraging the freedom to express even silly thoughts, it often brings out some real gold amid the dross. Brainstorming can teach individuals to respect and build on their own creative capacity and that of others and to adopt the experimental frame of mind essential to effective problem solving.

As a means of starting a practical planning process with wide involvement, brainstorming has a number of applications. Here are a few examples:

- Planning for special programs like how to analyze the needs of students on campus, or to obtain needed curriculum changes.

- Creating supplemental field experiences for students such as teacher aide, tutoring, after school recreation, and community action programs.

- Working on ways to have a more effective association; or ways to increase the impact of the association on the academic community.

To introduce brainstorming, divide the participants into random groups of 3 to five by any simple method. If the room has enough chalkboard space, each group can gather around a section of chalkboard; otherwise each group can gather around a desk or table equipped with a large sheet of paper. (Newsprint or wrapping paper is fine.) One person in each group should act as recorder.

Describe brainstorming as a first step in planning, a way of getting out the greatest number of ideas to consider. Say that the only rule is to spill out ideas as quickly as possible without criticism of your own thoughts or those of others. Start with a practice session instructing the groups to write on the chalkboard or paper as many items as they can think of for a list of items related to issues or programs that are of interest to this particular meeting. After five minutes, stop the listing and have the groups quickly count and share the number of items they recorded. Take another few minutes to discuss questions like these: Did you express all the ideas

that came to you? Did everyone get a chance to put in his ideas? Were you able to avoid being critical of each other's contributions?

After the practice session, while still divided into the small groups, announce the chosen planning task and take a few minutes to answer any questions for clarification. Give the groups 10 minutes to produce and record their ideas.

Sharing the ideas of the various groups is important, but a series of full reports from as many as 10 groups can become tedious and repetitive. As an alternative, ask each group to choose and report the two ideas it wants most to share. In any case, all the lists should be posted long enough to give everyone an opportunity to see how many ideas emerged in a short time.

To prepare for the next step--sorting and refining the ideas--select a planning committee to combine the lists. The committee might also narrow the list to a few promising items for association action.

Choose the brainstorming session by discussing the following questions, which can be jotted down quickly: Was this a good way to get your ideas listened to: Did many good ideas come out? Can you think of other time we might use this method of sharing ideas in our group?

Other Sources:

Osborn, Alex F. Applied Imagination (Scribner's, rev. ed. 1963).

Parnes, Sidney J. and Harding, Harold F., eds. Source Book for Creative Thinking (Scribner's, 1962).

LOST ON THE MOON: *

A DECISION-MAKING PROBLEM

"Lost on the Moon," an ingenious decision-making exercise devised by Jay Hall, associate professor of management at the University of Texas School of Business Administration, is an entertaining way to teach the problems and potentials of working as a group. Based on actual work done by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the exercise poses the following problem:

> You are in a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Mechanical difficulties, however, have forced your ship to crash-land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. The rough landing damaged much of the equipment aboard. Since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed 15 items left intact after landing. Your task is to rank them in terms of their importance to your crew in its attempt to reach the rendezvous point. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important, and so on through number 15, the least important.
>
> ___Box of matches
> ___Food concentrate
> ___50 feet of nylon rope
> ___Parachute silk
> ___Portable heating unit
> ___Two .45 calibre pistols
> ___One case dehydrated milk
> ___Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen
> ___Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)
> ___Life raft
> ___Magnetic compass
> ___5 gallons of water
> ___Signal flares
> ___First-aid kit containing injection needles
> ___Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

Participants work on the problem alone, then in groups of five or six, where they compare their individual rankings and agree on a common ranking for the group. Then a leader scores the individual and group results according to the correct rankings established by the space survival unit of NASA.

The exercise can be completed in one session of an hour and a half.

Setting up the exercise requires only three steps:

1. Choose two or three students to serve as a scoring committee. They can participate in Part One of the exercise and observe the rest.

2. Devise a method for dividing the students into groups of

five or six members. Each student will need an area on which to write, so groups might be formed around a large table or by moving desks to form small circles.

3. Prepare enough copies of the problem to have 2 for each student as well as 10 to 12 extra copies for the Group Summary forms.

Form the groups, briefly introduce the problem without going into details of the exercise, and provide each student with two copies of the problem sheet. Give each group a number and have the students put that number on their problem sheets. Instruct the students to work independently, ranking each item in order of its importance and recording the ranking on both sheets. As the students finish, have the scoring committee collect one copy from each student, keeping the groups separated.

Have each group work with its members' second copies to build a Group Summary Form by recording individual rankings on a single fresh copy of the problem.

While the groups are at work, have the scoring committee total the individual scores by comparing them with the key shown below. For each item, the score is the absolute difference between the student's ranking and the correct ranking. The total score is the sum of the scores for each item. The lowest score is the "best."

The scoring committee should also compute the average individual score and the range of individual scores for each group.

If the exercise is conducted in one session, the groups move into Part Two as soon as they have had a chance to survey the Summary Form.

For Part Two, ask each group to complete one ranking representing the decision of the whole group. Emphasize that decisions are to be based on logic and fact rather than on any personal preference and should represent common agreement among group members rather than a simple majority vote. At this point discussion may become quite animated, and a group should have plenty of time to reach its decisions.

As the groups finish, have the scoring committee collect and score the group sheets by the same method used for the individual forms. The scoring committee should also calculate the difference between each group's score and the average individual score for that group's members. The committee then prepares a sheet for each group listing the following information: average individual score, range, group score, and difference between average individual and group scores.

In Part Three begin by explaining the scoring key and scoring method and tell what information each group is receiving. Then use questions like the following:

1. Did the group do better than <u>any</u> individual? Did it do better than the average individual? Why?

2. Did some members have more influence than others?

3. How did your group reach agreement? What are the advantages and disadvantages of that method?

4. How did you feel working in the group?

5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of working in the group?

Give each group the final sheet prepared by the scoring committee, return the scored individual forms, and ask the groups to discuss the results separately for ten to fifteen minutes.

Once the groups have begun their individual discussions, make a chart on the chalkboard or newsprint comparing group results. It should look like the following table:

Group	Average Individual Score	Range High-Low	Group Score	Net Change
1	45	72-27	25	20
2	32	58-20	24	8
3	41	64-27	26	15
4	28	61-17	28	0

After the groups have had sufficient time for individual discussions, call their attention to the chart comparing group results and have the entire group discuss the differences.

Often the group that has taken the greatest amount of time to reach their decision will have the best score. Also it is not uncommon to find that the group score will be better than that of any individual within the group. The importance of identifying member resources, the different roles played by group members, the value of collaboration, different styles of group decision making and their consequences--these are some of the points to be derived from the experience.

Scoring Key

(15) Box of matches	Little or no use on moon
(4) Food concentrate	Supply daily food required
(6) 50 feet of nylon rope	Useful in tying injured, help in climbing
(8) Parachute silk	Shelter against sun's rays
(13) Portable heating unit	Useful only if party landed on dark side of moon
(11) Two .45 calibre pistols	Self-propulsion devices could be made from them
(12) One case dehydrated milk	Food, mixed with water for drinking
(1) Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen	Fills respiration requirement
(3) Stellar map of the moon's constellation	One of principal means of finding directions

(9) Life raft	CO_2 bottles for self-propulsion across chasms, etc.
(14) Magnetic compass	Probably no magnetized poles; thus, useless
(2) 5 gallons of water	Replenishes loss by sweating, etc.
(10) Signal flares	Distress call within line of sight
(7) First-aid kit containing injection needles	Oral pills or injection medicine valuable
(5) Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter	Distress signal transmitter, possible communication with mother ship

STOP ACTION*

"Stop action" is the technique of interrupting work on a task in order to examine the way we are working.

It is a simple corrective for our tendency to become so absorbed in what we are doing that we fail to notice--and learn from--- how we are doing it.

Stop action helps people learn to be more effective group members and group leaders. It can increase group creativity and it can add to the learning and satisfaction gained from the experience.

To introduce stop action, ask groups of students to create an original graphic symbol for a real or imaginary organization. The coordinator of the session should choose in advance the subject to be symbolized. The school, the class, or the organization are all good subjects. The exercise can also be linked to a curriculum area by choosing a subject, such as a political party, a nation, a city, a profession, or the advocates of a particular school of thought in politics or literature.

For the exercise itself, follow these easy steps:

1. Divide the students into groups of five or six, and give each group a poster-size sheet of newsprint or wrapping paper and a few crayons.
2. Announce that the groups will have 15 minutes to create a pictorial symbol of the chosen subject.
3. When 10 minutes have passed, stop the groups and tell them to take five minutes to analyze how they have been working. To guide the discussion, direct their attention to the following questions, which can be written on the chalkboard or on slips of paper prepared in advance: (a) Is everyone in the group participating? (b) Whose ideas are being carried out? (c) Have any ideas been passed over or rejected? Why? (d) How are things being decided?
4. When the five minutes of analysis are over, tell the groups to take five minutes more to complete the project.
5. Then, stop the action and have the groups discuss the same questions again for five minutes.
6. After posting the symbols around the room, bring the entire group together, and have each explain its symbol and the way they worked to create it.
7. After all groups have reported, hold a general discussion on "looking at how we work together." Questions such as these will help get the discussions started: "Were you influenced during the second work period because you had stopped to consider how you were working? In what way?" "How might your group have improved the way it worked?"

In the discussion, all points of view should be accepted as valid in order to demonstrate that every person experiences events differently. If time permits, each student can jot down a number representing his degree of satisfaction with the way his group worked--for example, 1 for not at all, 2 for very little, 3 for more satisfied that not, and 4 for very much. The results can be quickly tabulated and introduced into the discussion, with questions like "Does this degree of satisfaction seem adequate?" and "What are some reasons people were not satisfied and what can we do about these in the future?"

Stop action can be useful in any number of situations. Here are a few general applications:

- In committee work, with questions such as "What's helping us do our job?" "What's holding us up?"
- During discussion, with questions like "Does everyone have a chance to contribute?" and "What would make the discussion better?"
- At formal meetings, with questions like "How are we reaching our decisions?" and "Do we know how the various members feel about the meeting?"

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Bradford, Leland P., editor, Selected Readings Series One: Group Development. Washington, D. C.: National Training Laboratories, NEA, 1961, "How To Diagnose Group Problems," pp. 37-50.

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Nylen, Donald, Mitchell, J. Robert, and Stout, Anthony. Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa. Revised edition. Washington, D. C.: National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with the NEA, 1967. "Staff Performance and Group Growth," pp. 88-96.

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ROLE PLAYING *

by Howard Lamb, program director, Center for Development
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Role playing is a forceful technique for helping individuals understand themselves and others and an excellent means of teaching interpersonal and group skills.

The biggest payoff from role playing comes when it is put to work on real situations, such as finding how a personality conflict emerged, why a group failed to make decisions or how Student Education Association representatives can best present recommendations to the Administrative Council of the college. Although many are familiar with the potential value of role playing, they feel too uncomfortable in the director role to make full use of it. For that reason, the following is designed to help both association leader and membership develop role-playing skills.

As a first step, leaders unfamiliar with the introduction of role playing might begin by asking students to put themselves in the place of individuals they are relating to. The question, "How might the Dean of Education respond to our ideas for changing the teacher education curriculum?", is introducing an essential component of role playing: identification with another person or role. When a leadership group discusses the dean's feelings, they become more real, and the students realize that they can use their own emotions as a guide to help them understand the feelings of others.

Asking people to take the parts of characters in a situation adds a second dimension of role playing. Once the situation is chosen, the actors take a few minutes to adjust themselves to their roles; then the action begins. When the leader senses that the actors have achieved a peak of involvement, he stops the action and opens a discussion of the scene.

First the role players tell how they felt in their own roles and what they felt about the other players; then the rest of the group joins in to discuss their observations.

Although we all know that emotions affect the way we relate to one another, we often overlook their influence. Highlighting them brings this important part of behavior into consciousness.

Role playing can be an excellent technique for understanding ourselves and others in the roles we play and for practicing interpersonal in-group skills. It is important to remember that role playing is useful in dealing with a

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distinct group of problems involving human relations. Many other procedures serve to meet the educational requirements of various group situations, and it is wise to reserve role playing for situations where it is really required.

Role playing as used here is synonymous with sociodrama, not psychodrama. In role playing, no one has been asked to play himself or to become so personally involved that personal and private feelings could become the primary focus. Psychodrama is better left to a trained therapist.

The basic role-playing technique offers excellent opportunities for developing the inventive abilities of any group as well as increasing human relations skills and insights.

References:

Chesler, Mark and Fox, Robert, Role-Playing Methods in the Classroom. Teacher Resource Booklets on Classroom Social Relations and Learning. Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1966. pp. 86.

Levit, Grace and Jennings, Helen Hall. "Learning Through Role Playing" (Tool Kit). Adult Leadership 2: 9-16, 5; October, 1953.

EXERCISE

ON

PERCEPTION AND TRANSMISSION OF INFORMATION

INSTRUCTION SHEET

EXERCISE ON

PERCEPTION AND TRANSMISSION OF INFORMATION

With this sheet of instructions you have been given a sketch of a lady. Look at the picture carefully. Note the points below. You will be given three minutes to memorize the details. When the three minutes have elapsed you will be asked to tell the ten points about this picture to the person at your side.

The points to remember and to tell your neighbor are:

1. It is a picture of a lady
2. There is a feather in her hair
3. There is a cloth piece over her head
4. She has a fur around her neck
5. The feather in her hair is curved
6. The color of the fur appears to be the same color as her hair
7. The cloth piece over her head has wrinkles and is not straight
8. The cloth piece does not cover the front part of her hair
9. The hair appears to be very dark
10. The lady's age appears to be about...(guess)

Now be ready to tell the above points to your neighbor!

Instructions for Trainer

PERCEPTION AND THE TRANSMISSION OF INFORMATION

Objectives

1. To stimulate awareness that information readily becomes distorted in the transmission from one person through a second to a third, and so on.

2. To further awareness that one responds in terms of one's perceptions and that perceptions vary widely among people.

3. To stimulate more critical examination of rumor.

Materials and Setting

1. Chalkboard, chalk, eraser.

2. Two copies of the "Instruction Sheet."

3. Sketch of the lady.

Note: The exercise can be done with a single copy of the sketch, but the trainer would be wise to have several prepared as these extras will facilitate the progress of the exercise, especially if it is being given to a large group.

Audience situation for all the participants except five. The five are separated from the group and seated in chairs placed approximately three feet apart.

Method of Development

The five individuals selected from the group are seated in a row facing the group.

The first individual in the group of five is given the sketch of the lady and a copy of the "Instruction Sheet." He is allowed three minutes to study the sketch and to assimilate the ten facts about it.

Note: The sketch used is so drawn that one may perceive it as a picture of a young lady or a very old lady.

When the signal is given, the first subject returns the instructions and sketch to the trainer and is told to turn to the next (second) person and to describe the picture according to the points he has been asked to remember. The second person may ask questions. The conversation is to be in a whisper so that the third person in the row does not hear.

When the first subject has described the sketch (ten points or whatever number he can remember) to the second, the second subject is asked to whisper the details to the third, and so on until the description has finally been heard by the fifth person.

The fifth person is then asked to tell the group the description of the picture. The points he makes are noted on the board and a line is drawn after the last item. When the fifth subject has finished reporting, the fourth person is asked to add any points. The sketch is then shown to the group and the ten points on the instruction sheet are read to them.

If the question of age and the double stimulus of the picture has not been brought out, the trainer asks the group to vote as to age. He then encourages the participants to describe what they see and why they think the drawing pictures a young or an old lady, until the group members perceive that both perceptions are possible.

Discussion

General discussion is encouraged by the trainer, who uses the objectives of the lesson as his guide. Participants should be encouraged to discuss what meanings the exercise has for them and the implications of the experience for their work situation at home.

At the close of the discussion the trainer summarizes and brings out these points:

1. Individuals react to the same stimuli with different responses. Personal history and "mental set" play an important part in determining the kind and quality of perception in social situations.

2. Information can be readily distorted in the transmission from one person to another. The communicator's perception of what he is trying to communicate and his ability to communicate play a part.

3. The listener's readiness also affects the transmission of information and attitudes.

AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION

COOPERATION SQUARES GAME

PURPOSE

To become more sensitive to how one's behavior may help or hinder problem solving.

SETTING

The exercise can be used by students in the upper-elementary grades or above and takes about 45 minutes.

PROCEDURE

1. Before class prepare a set of squares and an instruction sheet for each five students. (See sheets A and B)
2. Divide the class into groups of five and seat each group at a table equipped with a set of envelopes and an instruction sheet.
3. Ask that the envelopes be opened only on signal.
4. Begin the exercise by asking what cooperation means. List on the board the requirements for cooperation. EXAMPLE:
   Everyone has to understand the problem.
   Everyone needs to believe that he/she can help.
   Instructions need to be clear.
   Everyone needs to think of the other person as well as his/her self.
5. Describe the experiment as a puzzle that can only be solved with cooperation. Read the instruction aloud, point out that each table has a reference copy, then give the signal to open the envelopes.
6. When all or most of the groups have finished, call time and discuss the experience.

ANALYSIS - Ask such questions as:

How did you feel when someone held a piece and did not see the solution?
What was your reaction when someone finished his/her square and then sat back without seeing whether his/her solution prevented others from solving the problem?
What are your feelings if you finished your square and then began to realize that you would have to break it up and give away a piece?
How did you feel about the person who was slow at seeing the solution?
If you were that person, how did you feel?
Was there a climate that helped or hindered?

If students have helped to monitor, they may have observations they wish to share.
In summarizing the discussion, the teacher may wish to review the factors in cooperation listed at the beginning. Teacher may also want to ask whether the exercise relates to the way the class works from day to day.

MATERIALS

Set of squares and instruction sheet for each five participants

Table for each five participants

Stiff paper

Envelopes

AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION A

A puzzle set consists of five envelopes containing pieces of stiff paper cut into patterns that will form 6" x 6" squares, as shown in the diagram. Several individual combinations will be possible but only one total combination. Cut each square into the parts A through J and lightly pencil in the letters. Then mark the envelopes A through E and distribute the pieces thus:

Envelope A - i, h, e

B - a, a, a, c

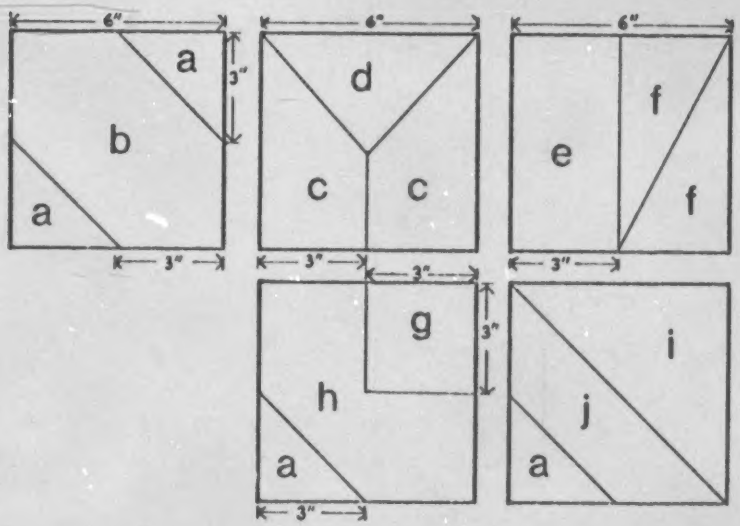
C - a, j

D - d, f

E - g, b, f, c

Erase the small letters and write instead the envelope letter A through E, so that the pieces can be easily returned for reuse.

By using multiples of three inches, several combinations will form one or two squares. Only one combination will form five 6" x 6" squares.



AN EXPERIMENT IN COOPERATION B

Instruction Sheet

Each person should have an envelope containing pieces for forming squares. At the signal, the task of the group is to form five squares of equal size. The task is not complete until everyone has before him a perfect square and all the squares are of the same size.

These are the rules:

1. No member may speak.

2. No member may ask for a card or in any way signal that he wants one.

3. Members may give cards to others.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR TRAINER

ONE-AND-TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

To demonstrate the differences between a situation in which two-way communication exists and one in which communication goes one way.

To stimulate trainees to think about their relations with subordinates and to recognize the importance of encouraging questions and suggestions from them.

MATERIALS AND SETTING

1. Chalkboard, chalk, eraser.

2. Two pieces of paper and a pencil for each participant.

3. Reproductions of Chart I and Chart II on standard size paper.

Participants should be facing the speaker and in position that will make it impossible, or at least difficult for them to see one another's work. The demonstrator turns his/her back to the group for the first phase of the exercise or stands behind a screen.

METHOD OF DEVELOPMENT

The trainer begins by asking for clarification of the meaning of communication and illustrations of situations in which communication takes place. Following this exploratory discussion of communication, the trainer relates the importance of communication to all cooperative effort and group enterprise. The trainer then indicates that communication can be studied and that numerous experiments have been made in the effort to understand the process and the efforts of good and faulty communication.

In developing ways of looking at communication the trainer brings out the following points:

1. Communication can be viewed in terms of the CONTENT. This can be almost anything such as place, time, persons, or things. "Meet me at 8 o'clock at the store." In this case the appointment, the time, and place form the content.
2. Communication can be viewed in terms of DIRECTION. It may be ONE-WAY in direction, as A to B. It may be TWO_WAY in direction, as A to B and B to A. It may be in terms of NETWORKS, as A to B to C to A. For network the trainer can use as an example a son talking to his mother who talks to his father in relation to a request.

3. Communication may be more or less noisy. There may be variation in the intensity of the sound. (Illustrate in speaking.) There may be static, as in the telephone. There may be other types of noise interference. Point out that repition may help get a message across even if noise is present.

Trainer indicates that group will conduct an experiment to study communication as it is affected by DIRECTIONALITY. It will be looked at in terms of time required, accuracy, and attitudes.

Trainer selects a demonstrator and one or two observers.

NOTE: The individual selected as the demonstrator should be one of the more able members of the group who speaks clearly and loudly enough to be heard.

The group members are each given a pencil and two sheets of paper, one to be labeled CHART I and the other, CHART II in the upper right-hand corner. The group is told that the demonstrator will give directions to draw a series of squares. The members are to reproduce the squares as they are told. In the first situation they may ask no questions and give no audible response. In the second drawing situation they may ask questions and the demonstrator will answer them in as much detail as is requested. He/she should not, however, be permitted to show the placement of the squares or their relationship to one another by drawing diagrams in the air with his hands. Only veral directions are acceptable.

The demonstrator is then asked to come forward and is seated either with his/her back to the group or behind a screen. The trainer should be careful that the participants do not see the diagram of squares the demonstrator holds.

The demonstrator is given the first chart of squares and told to study it carefulky for two minutes in order to be prepared to instruct the group members how to draw a similar set of squares on their paper marked CHART I.

While the demonstrator is studying the squares on CHART I, the trainer instructs the observer or observers. If there are two, the first is asked to note the behavior and reactions of the demonstrator and to make notes for later comment; while the second is asked to make notes on the group, the behaviors, remarks, facial reactions, gestures, and so on.

NOTE: It is advisable for the trainer to have previously prepared CHARTS I and II on pieces of opaque cardboard the same size as the paper that will be given to participants.

Having completed the instructions to the group, to the demonstrator, and to the observers, the trainer places three small chart forms on the chalkboard similar to the following:

Instructions -- One-and-Two-Way Communication

Fig. 1.

Medians	I	II
Time elapsed	—	—
Guess accuracy	—	—
Actual accuracy	—	—

Fig. 2.

FIRST TRIAL		
No.	Guess	Actual
0	—	—
1	—	—
2	—	—
3	—	—
4	—	—
5	—	—

Fig. 3.

SECOND TRIAL		
No.	Guess	Actual
0	—	—
1	—	—
2	—	—
3	—	—
4	—	—
5	—	—

When the demonstrator is ready to give the instructions for drawing the first chart of squares, he is told to proceed. He is reminded to tell the group what to draw as quickly and accurately as he can.

NOTE: It may be necessary to caution the group again to ask no questions and to monitor the situation in case the reactions of the participants are too loud.

When the demonstrator has completed giving the instructions for CHART I, the time it look to do so is recorded in the proper space of Figure 1. Each member of the group is then asked to write down on his/her paper the number of squares he THINKS he has drawn correctly in relation to the others.

The trainer then instructs the demonstrator to turn around and to face the audience. He/she is given CHART II and told to study the relationship of the squares in this new diagram for two minutes in readiness for instructing the group how to draw it. The group is told that the members may now ask questions and the demonstrator is told that he/she may reply or amplify their statements as he/she sees fit. The demonstrator is then told to proceed.

When the demonstrator has completed giving instructions for the second chart the time is again recorded in the appropriate space of Figure 1 on the chalkboard. The members of the grou are again asked to guess the number of squares they have drawn correctly and to record the number on thir papers.

A median for guessed accuracy on the first trial is obtained by listing numbers from zero to five on the chalkboard (Figure 2). The trainer calls for a show of hands of the number who guessed zero, the number who guessed one, and so on. When the total number has been obtained and recorded, the number of participants guessing each number until he reaches the halved number--

half of the total participants. The number guessed at this middle point is the median and is recorded on Figure 1 in the appropriate place.

The same method is repeated to get the median of guessed accuracy for the second trial (two-way communication) with the use of Figure 3. If the trainer prefers, he may obtain an average rather than a median.

Members are shown the master chart for the first set of squares, and the relationship of each square to the preceding one is pointed out. Each square must be in the exact relationship to the preceding one as it appears on the master key to be counted as correct. When this has been completed, the members are asked to count up and record the actual number each has correct. A similar count is taken for the second chart.

A median for accuracy for the first and second sets of squares is obtained by the method which was used to determine the median for guessed accuracy (see Figures 2 and 3). The results are recorded on the chalkboard (Figure 1).

DISCUSSION

The results in terms of time, accuracy, and level of confidences are compared using the data which has been collected. The group should be allowed ample time to discuss and generalize upon the data.

When the group has had sufficient time to deal with the first set of data, the observers are called upon for comment about the reactions of the demonstrator and the group. The observations are discussed by the group in terms of attitudes, feelings, and the like, and their relationship to the previous data.

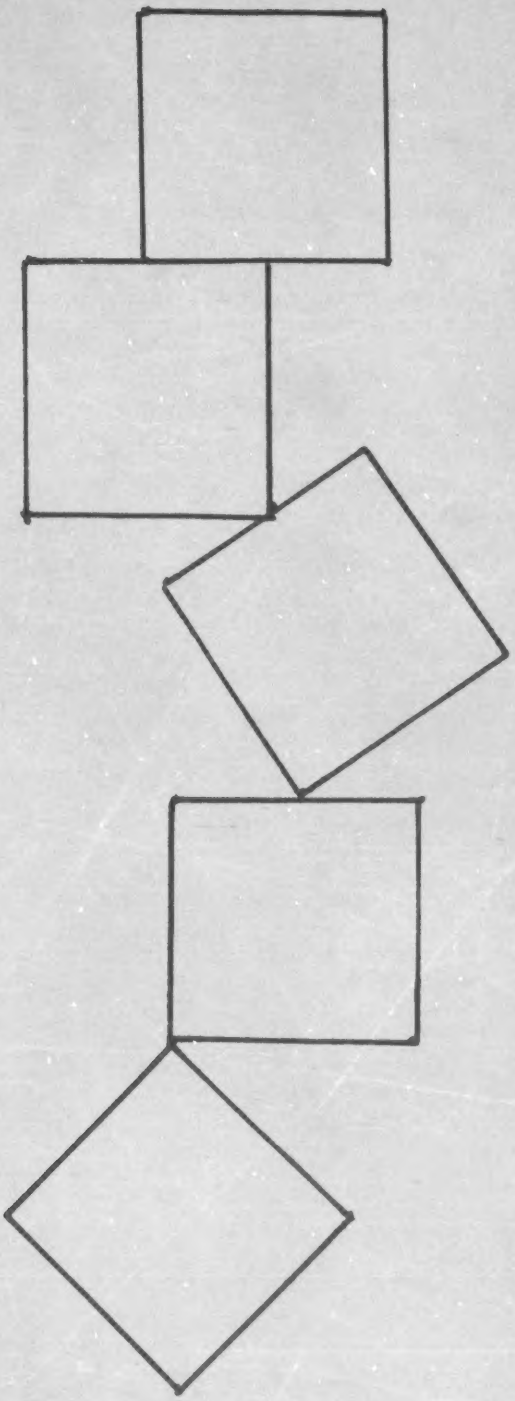
The trainer summarizes, pointing out that one-way communication is often quicker, less accurate, and the level of confidence of the hearer is lower. Two-way communication takes more time but is also likely to be more accurate. It is also usually more disturbing to the demonstrator.

Each of the participants will have had a slightly different reaction to the exercise, depending upon his/her past experience and office situation. It is usually advantageous to have participants relate what they have learned from their experience in one-and two-way communication to behavior they have noted in the office.

It may be appropriate to end the discussion by summarizing on the chalkboard the participants' views on how they will change their own office behavior as a result of what they have experienced during the session.

CHART I

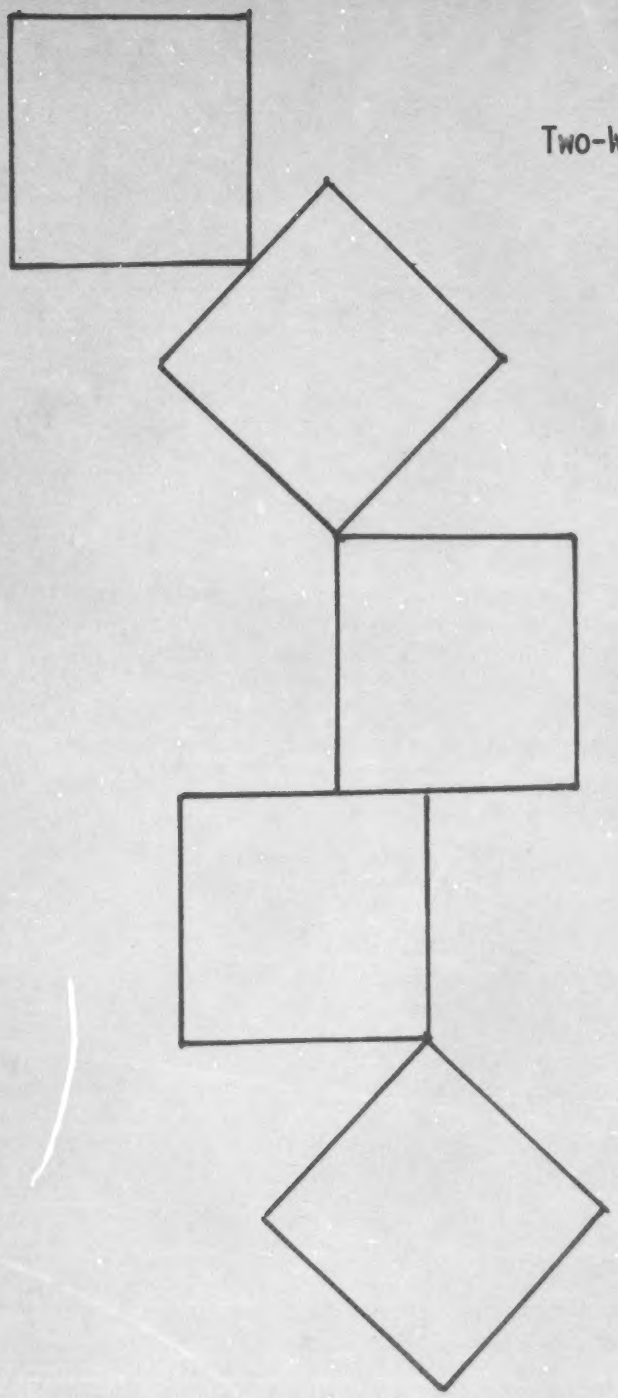
ONE-WAY COMMUNICATION



INSTRUCTIONS: Study the figures above. With your back to the group, you are to instruct the members of the group how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, making particular note of the description and the angle of each square.

CHART II

Two-Way Communication



INSTRUCTIONS: Study the figures above. Facing the group, you are to instruct the members how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession making particular note of the description and angle of each square.

TINKER TOYS

PURPOSE

To examine the behavior of groups at work on a task.

SETTING

This is a good opening event in a workshop or laboratory. It serves well as an icebreaker, providing a nonthreatening activity which is usually noisy and fun. Members also get an initial acquaintance with one another's style of group participation.

PROCEDURE

Litte or no introduction is needed. With groups of 10 to 12 seated around tables, place a box of Tinker Toys on each table, Ask the group to work together to create a symbol of their expectations for the laboratory. "What is it you want and hope to get out of it?"

Allow about 40 minutes. When all groups have finished, ask each to give an interpretation of its symbol, with the other groups gathered around for a close look. Ask them to take their seats again and discuss how they work together on the task. This may be their introduction to process discussion.

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

New groups usually need guidelines for discussing process. This can be provided by putting the following questions on the board:

Whose ideas got carried out?
What ideas were not carried out and why?
What leadership behaviors did you notice?
How were decisions made?
Did anyone feel left out?
How did you feel if someone did not listen, or if your idea was not accepted?

ALTERNATIVES

If this exercise is done midway in a laboratory, the task may be to make symbol of the group at its present stage of development, or at the end of a laboratory, to make a symbol of the chief learnings from the laboratory.

MATERIALS

A box of TINKER TOYS for each group (instructions removed).

AN EXERCISE IN HELPING AND ANALYZING PROBLEM SITUATION

INSTRUCTION SHEET

THE PURPOSE

In this exercise we will study the problems of helping persons to more fully understand and to explore possible solutions to their problems. The exercise will, at the same time, offer each individual an opportunity to begin analyzing a back-home problem.

THE PLAN

We will work in combinations of three persons. One individual (the Presenter) will discuss a problem of his choice with a second person (the Consultant) while a third person (the Observer) will listen to the discussion and, will ask questions and comment about what he/she has observed. There will be three interviews to that each member of the group will have an opportunity to present a problem, to serve as a consultant, and to be an observer.

After the first set of interviews there will be time in which we will discuss our experiences- but not the problems which were presented. Again, following the third round of interviews we will meet to discuss the problems of receiving help, giving help, and observing.

The members of each group will decide who is to be the first to present his/her problem, who the second, and who the third.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE PRESENTER

1. Think of a situation (work, family, committee, or other) which you find unsatisfactory and would like to change when you arrive home. Select a problem which is of real concern to you.
2. In presenting the problem try to be brief and specific. At the same time indicate some of the symptoms and reasons for your concern.
3. After explaining the problem, give the consultant a chance to ask questions which may help you to clarify the situation and look for possible solutions.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE CONSULTANT

1. Your task is to help the Presenter define, or perhaps redefine, his/her problem and his relationship to it in sufficiently specific terms that he may be able to take some steps toward solving it.
2. Ideas:
   a. How does the Presenter see himself in the situation? With sole personal responsibility? Enforcing authority? Developing motivation? Building group standards? Other role characteristics?
   b. What seem to be fundamental difficulties? Who does what? What seems to happen? Why do they happen?
   c. What solutions have been tried? With what results? What other solutions seem possible?

d. Are there indications that others are concerned? Who? For what reasons? Who else might be concerned and for what reasons?
e. Are there any indications from the Presenter's behavior, as you know him, that he may not see some aspects of his own involvement in the problems? If so, can he do something about his part in the situation?

3. Cautions:
a. Don't take over the problem. Resist the temptation to say such things as "The real problem seems to be ...." or "You should do..." Instead try, through the questions you ask, to help the Presenter see things you may see.
b. Don't disparage the problem. Resist the temptation to say such things as "We had the same problem and solved it in this way. It's not difficult." The problem is very real to the Presenter.

4. Guidelines:
a. Focus particularly on questions such as: Why? How do you know? What does this mean?
b. Try to help the Presenter focus on what he can do -- not on what others ought to do.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE OBSERVER

1. Your task is to observe and to listen as carefully as you can. Try to remain inconspicuous and to interfere as little as possible. When you make your remarks, comment briefly on what you saw taking place in such a way as to encourage the Presenter and the Consultant to think and talk about your observations.

2. Ideas:
a. Ask yourself often during the interview, "What is going on between the Presenter and the Consultant?"
b. How does the Consultant go about establishing a relationship? Do his remarks help the Presenter to speak freely?
c. How carefully do the Consultant and the Presenter listen to each other?
d. Do both Presenter and Consultant stay with defining and understanding the problem and the causes before trying to think of solutions?

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

THE ISSUE: _____

Supporting Forces	Strengthening Factors	Mitigating Factor	Hindering Forces

BACK HOME PLANNING

OUR LOCAL UNIT WILL DO THE FOLLOWING:

Issue	Program(s)	Time Table of Events	Contact (Name,Address,Phone)

LEADERSHIP WORKSHOP DESIGN

9:00 - 10:00 am	LEADERSHIP-- A Definition - What is Leadership? - What are the elements of Leadership?
10:00 - 11:30 am	The Organization - What should be the role of the local unit or campus? - Lecturette — A strong local association - What should a model unit look like?
11:30 - 1:00 pm	Lunch
1:00 - 2:45 pm	Planning for Action - How do you build cooperation? - Lecturette — Finding students needs and issues on the campus. - How can leaders help and analyze problem situations?
2:45 - 3:00 Pm	Break
3:00 - 4:00 pm	Planning for Campus Action - How can we put our ideas into action? - What are we going to do?
4:00 - 4:15 pm	Wrap-up

THANKS, HAVE A SAFE TRIP HOME.

SOME THINGS THAT EVERY COMMITTEE CHAIRPERSON SHOULD KNOW

1. Make sure committee members know the goals and purposes of the Committee.

2. Never start a meeting without an agenda--a list of things to be covered by the meeting. An agenda saves time. An agenda keeps a meeting on target.

3. State the purpose of the meeting at the beginning and read the agenda aloud. Odd as it may seem, members of a meeting do not always know why they are there. Informing them of the purpose helps them concentrate on what the meeting is to accomplish. Also, it helps direct their thinking.

4. Keep the meeting moving. Just as a meeting is seldom any better than its chairperson, so it is seldom any more productive than the interest of its participating members. Interest flags when action lags. If you are a chairperson, keep the meeting moving.

5. See that the secretary is getting clear and accurate minutes.

6. Speak clearly. If you are the chairperson, you are the spearhead of the meeting. You have the agenda. You know what it's all about. If you can't be heard, you can't exercise control. If you have a low speaking voice rap for silence before you speak.

7. Prevent general hubbub. When everybody talks at once, nobody can be heard. When nobody can be heard, nothing can be accomplished. Insist on order.

8. Avoid talking to individuals without talking to the group. Side conversation between the chairperson and individual members disrupt a meeting.

9. Keep the speaker talking clearly and audibly. If a member asks for the floor and is given it, it is up to you to see that he makes proper use of it. Interrupt him if necessary and have him repeat what he has said if you have the slightest suspicion that not everyone has heard.

10. Sum up what the speaker has said and obtain a decision. Not all members will be good at expressing themselves. It is up to you to determine what they have said and whether or not it has been understood--and get the decision of all members on the topic.

11. Stop aimless discussion by recommending committee study. Occasionally subjects are discussed on which general agreement at the time cannot be reached. On such occasions, submit the matter to further study by a committee--which you appoint.

12. Keep control of the meeting at all times without stifling free comment. Invite criticism and even disagreement. Also ask for support. And clarify issues by obtaining majority support.

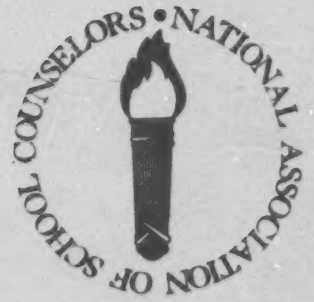
13. Don't argue with the speaker. Ask questions if you disagree. But remember--you, as chairperson, are supposed to be neutral. No matter how ardent you feel, let the meeting make the decision. You're conducting a symphony, not playing a solo.

14. If you have a comment, or feel called upon to take part in partisan discussion, ask for the floor as a participant.

15. Don't squelch a troublemaker. Let the meeting do it--call such troublemaking to the attention of the whole gathering. Again-- you must remain impartial. It's the duty of the meeting to pass judgment--not yours. Let the meeting pass judgment not only on the issues but on the conduct of individual members. - 80-

A PROGRAM PLANNING AND EVALUATION BOOKLET

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W.
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20036



A Program and Evaluation Booklet

This workbook is programmed. That is, it is presented in a series of separate steps of which contains a complete and separate idea, question or instruction.

Be sure you understand and have completed each frame before going on to the next.

THE FIRST STEP IS FOR YOU TO IDENTIFY THE GOAL ON WHICH YOU WISH TO WORK. TO DEFINE THE GOAL, BEGIN BY DESCRIBING THE SITUATION OR PROBLEM AS YOU NEW SEE IT. MOST SITUATION STATEMENTS CAN BE PHRASED SO THAT THEY DESCRIBE TWO THINGS:

a. the situation as it is now

b. the situation as you would like it to be (the idea)

STATE YOUR SITUATION IN THESE TWO WAYS AS SPECIFICALLY AS YOU CAN.

NOW THAT YOU HAVE LISTED THE IDEAL, LIST SOME POSSIBLE ACTION STEPS (ACTIVITIES) WHICH YOU MIGHT BE ABLE TO PLAN AND CARRY OUT TO REACH THE DESIRED OUTCOME.

BRAINSTORM. LIST AS MANY SPECIFIC ACTION STEPS AS POSSIBLE WITHOUT WORRYING ABOUT HOW EFFECTIVE OR PRACTICAL THEY WOULD BE. YOU WILL LATER HAVE A CHANCE TO DECIDE WHICH ARE THE MOST APPROPRIATE.

ACTION STEPS:

ACTION STEPS:

YOU HAVE NOW LISTED SOME POSSIBLE ACTION STEPS (ACTIVITIES) TO CONSTRUCTIVELY CHANGE THE FORCES AFFECTING YOUR PROBLEM SITUATION. REVIEW THESE POSSIBLE ACTION STEPS AND UNDERLINE THOSE WHICH SEEM MOST PROMISING TO YOU.

LIST THE STEPS YOU HAVE UNDERLINED. THEN FOR EACH ACTION STEP LIST THE MATERIALS, PEOPLE, AND OTHER RESOURCES WHICH ARE AVAILABLE TO YOU FOR CARRYING OUT THE ACTION.

ACTION STEPS	RESOURCES AVAILABLE

Action Steps	Resources Available

NOW REVIEW THE LIST OF ACTION STEPS AND RESOURCES IN THE PREVIOUS FRAME AND THINK ABOUT HOW THEY MIGHT EACH FIT INTO A COMPREHENSIVE ACTION PLAN. ELIMINATE THOSE ITEMS WHICH DO NOT SEEM TO FIT INTO THE OVERALL PLAN (I.E. BECAUSE OF COST, AVAILABLE RESOURCES, TIME, ETC.) AND ADD ANY NEW STEPS AND RESOURCES WHICH WILL ROUND OUT THE PLAN. BE SPECIFIC, THEN WRITE A POSSIBLE SEQUENCE OF ACTION.

NOW THAT YOU HAVE A PLAN, YOU SHOULD BEGIN EXPLORING WAYS TO IT.

EVALUATION IS A PROCESS IN WHICH OBSERVABLE OR MEASURABLE DATA IS COLLECTED TO DETERMINE WHETHER A GOAL HAS BEEN MET. THE DATA CAN BE OBJECTIVE AND STATISTICAL OR OPINION AND INFERENCE.

THERE ARE TWO KINDS OF EVALUATION--ONGOING EVALUATION AND TERMINAL EVALUATION.

ONGOING EVALUATION IS A CONTINUING PROCESS THAT OCCURS WHILE THE PROGRAM IS BEING IMPLEMENTED.

TERMINAL EVALUATION OCCURS AT THE END OF THE PROGRAM OR THE END OF THE PROGRAM YEAR.

THE FINAL STEP IS FOR YOU TO PLAN A WAY OF EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF YOUR ACTION PROGRAM AS IT IS IMPLEMENTED. THINK ABOUT THIS NOW AND LIST THE ONGOING AND TERMINAL EVALUATION PROCEDURES YOU WILL USE.

ONGOING

TERMINAL

NOW YOU HAVE A PLAN OF ACTION AND EVALUATION PROCEDURE TO DEAL WITH YOUR AREA OF NEED.

THE NEXT STEP IS FOR YOU TO BEGIN IMPLEMENTING THE PLAN.

LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES

Enclosed are a dozen or so techniques which have been found to be helpful in developing greater knowledge and skill in directing group forces toward goals the group has set.

The list of techniques is in no way inclusive. Neither are the descriptions thorough and complete.

Developed by:

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20036

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a method of problem solving in which group members suggest in rapid-fire order all the possible solutions they can think of. Criticism is ruled out. Evaluation of ideas comes later. The ideas are usually recorded on a chalkboard. Brainstorming is most productive in fairly small groups. It must be carefully timed with short periods devoted to a single focus.

A brainstorming session is usually followed by a period of evaluation, which is achieved through the use of another method.

Use brainstorming . . .

When a number of ideas and alternatives are needed

To encourage maximum participation

To create a warm, friendly feeling in the group

Brainstorming has these advantages . . .

Stimulates new and creative ideas

Does not take a great deal of time

Does not require highly skilled leadership

When using brainstorming . . .

Select a question or problem

Describe the method

Evaluate the information by using other methods

Symposium

The symposium is a series of short speeches on different aspects of a topic, with leadership, before an audience.

Use the symposium . . .

When the group is large

Use the symposium . . .

When qualified speakers are available

When no audience reaction is needed

The symposium has these advantages . . .

Demonstrates many aspects of a single subject

Easy to control as to time

May be planned completely ahead of time

When using the symposium . . .

Divide the subject into its logical subtopics

Assign the subtopics to speakers well in advance

Summarize

Role Playing

Role playing is a brief, spontaneous, and unrehearsed "acting out" of a human conflict situation by two or more persons for the purpose of analysis by the group. Each actor must be briefed on the kind of person he is to personify and project the feelings and emotions of that person as he believes such a person would have in dealing with the problem. Role Playing is helpful in situations where the determination of the act are apt to be based on "how one feels about it."

Use role playing . . .

When learners need to increase their understanding of opposing points of view

When learners have ability to use the method

When helping learners to "identify" with a problem

Role playing has these advantages . . .

Helps learners analyze situations

Helps learners to see themselves and gain self-understanding

Helps learners "experience" the other person's point of view

When using role playing . . .

Establish a situation

Brief actors

Lead in an analysis of the subject

Small Study Groups

Small study groups (buzz groups) are divisions of a larger group. The groups discuss assigned problems, usually for the purpose of reporting back to the larger group. Each group can have a different assignment, all can have the same assignment or any other modification that seems expedient. The important thing is that each group must have a specific assignment for discussion.

Use small study groups . . .

When the group is too large for all learners to participate

To insure participation

When time is limited

Dividing into small groups has these advantages . . .

Produces maximum participation

Provides for sharing of leadership

Develops leadership skills

When using small study groups . . .

Divide the entire group

Limit time for discussion

Call for reports

Buzz Groups

"Buzz group" is the term applied to the division of an audience into groups of 6-10 persons to get wide participation quickly on a very limited subject. The audience members turn their chairs to form small circles: or three or four persons in the first row turn around and face the same number directly behind them in the second row, the third row faces the fourth row, and so on.

The buzz group is particularly useful (a) to give everyone a chance to react to a speech or presentation and to discuss its application; (b) to sampel audience opinion relative to an issue or to a decision to be made; (c) to enable the members to share their common experiences in some practice or problem; (d) to give everyone a chance to express an opinion on a subject to a group of colleagues.

Phillips 66

Originally developed by J. Donald Phillips at Michigan State College* "Phillips 66", a form of small group, has a fixed procedure in which three persons from each row face one another to form groups of six. Then they are given six minutes to confer - to decide on a question or give an opinion.

*Now Michigan State University

Could be used in succession of 6 minute modules, each problem built upon the preceding one; problem identification, problem analysis, and problem solution.

Trios and Duos

Involvement of the audience - large or small - can always be achieved if the leader or speaker asks the two or three people sitting next to each other to react to a statement or a question or to pose a question about the subject under discussion.

This is a very helpful device in getting an audience "with" the speaker or the topic if used early in the presentation.

Trios and Duos are especially productive in small discussion groups to "zero in" on the real concerns and issues involved in the discussion topic.

Listening Teams

The audience is divided into two or three "listening sections" prior to the presentation. The chairman asks each section to listen to the presentation from a particular point of view. For example, ask one third of the audience to listen for points on which the listeners concur, another third to note ideas which they question, and another third to listen in order to identify "what I wish you had said but didn't say". After the presentation, the chairman or the speaker calls on several from each listening section or team to report their findings or questions, and the speaker notes or answers.

Observer-Observees

The observer-observees method is for sharpening the awareness of persons in problem solving: Three persons are grouped together in a toe-touching triangle. One person is an observer only. The other two persons are designated as one who is seeking help with a problem, the other person as one who can be helpful in finding a solution. The seeker poses his question and the expert attempts to be helpful. The dialogue proceeds. For example, one person might be designated as a local president who wants to know how he can upgrade the work of the faculty representatives or council members in his association. The helper is a state staff worker or an experienced president.

The observer will note whether the helper listens to, probes enough to understand the real problem before giving advice and counsel. He will attempt to observe the "feeling levels" in the dialogue. After ten minutes of dialogue and observer reactions, the roles will be changed and another situation identified. The same process is used until each person has functioned in each of the three roles.

This technique is great fun and extremely beneficial to the participants - though painful if one "can't take it".

Observer's Guide

Helper

1. Is the helper really hearing what the helpee is saying?
2. Does the helper respond directly to the issues and dilemmas raised by the helpee?
3. Does the helper ask the helpee for additional information and clarification when there is some doubt? (Who are "they", "he", "we"?)
4. Is the helper trying to help the helpee think through his problems or does he try to "sell" his own ideas?

Helpee

1. Does the helpee seem to have a clear idea of what his problems and needs are?
2. Does the helpee seem to want the helper to tell him what to do?
3. How comfortable does the helpee appear to be while listening to the helper and accepting suggestions from him?
4. Does the helpee appear to be looking for and evaluating the implications of several alternatives or is he looking for a quick answer?

Fish-Bowling

Fish-bowling is a term given to discussion and observation in a group of 10 to 20 persons. Two concentric circles are formed - half of the group in a tight discussion group and the other half in a broad outside circle as the observers.

The leader poses a topic of discussion for the inner circle. The outer circle persons are given a sheet of Things To Look For. (attached)

After five-ten minutes of discussion, the observers tell what they saw.

The observers in the first instance now become the discussers and the discussers the observers. A new topic is discussed and observers report on what happened the second time around. Usually, the second period of discussion is of a much higher level because the second discussion participants are conscious of what is being observed.

Things to Look for (Sheets to be given to outside observers)

Participation:	Did all have opportunities to participate? Were some excluded? Was an effort made to draw people out? Did a few dominate?
Leadership:	Did all have opportunities to participate? Were some excluded? Was an effort made to draw people out? Did a few dominate?
Roles:	Who initiated ideas? Were they supported and by whom? Did anyone block? Who helped push for decisions?
Decision-Making:	Did group get a lot of ideas suggested before beginning to decide, or did it begin deciding on only a single idea? Did everyone agree to the decisions made? Who helped influence decisions of others?
Communication:	Did people feel free to talk? Was there any interrupting or cutting people off? Did people listen to others? Was there clarification of points made?
Sensitivity:	Were members sensitive to the needs and concerns of each other?

Force-Field Analysis

The force-field analysis is based on a model for thinking about change as proposed by Kurt Lewin who saw behavior in an institutional setting, not as a static-habit or pattern, but as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions.

According to this way of looking at patterened behavior, change takes place when an imbalance occurs between the sum of the restraining forces and the sum of the driving forces. An imbalance may occur through a change in the magnitude of any one force, through a change in the direction of a force, or through the addition of a new force.

An example of analyzing the forces contributing to a specific goal follows:

Goal: Bringing About Professional Negotiation

(Restraining forces) →	Level of Productivity	(Helping forces) ←
Lack of know-how		State and national trends
Weak leadership		Improved communications
Apathy of members		More concerned teachers
Attitude of administration		Good board relationships
		Public and press support

Force-field analysis is diagnostic, not problem solving. After identifying the forces "working for" and "working against", priorities must be established and goals set. The problem solving approach should be used in Step II by translating particular forces into goals. For example, using the restraining force "apathy" as one of the forces to be weakened - translate it into a goal: "To reduce the degree of apathy present in our association." Forces again could be identified as:

New Goal: To Reduce Degree of Apathy Among Members

(Restraining Forces)	Level of Apathy	(Helping Forces)
Uninformed members		
		Some concerned members
Selfishness		
		Structure-local association
Unconcerned personnel		
		Success in group efforts
		Social urge to work together
Other work in addition to school work		
		Good leadership

New problem to be solved is to devise ways which might reduce the restraining forces by strengthening the helping forces.

Who's Listening

A speaker may involve the audience in his presentation by dividing the audience into three roughly defined areas. Before beginning his presentation he might designate the things to listen for, ie -

One third - "Listen for what I said"

Second third - "Listen for what I did not say"

Third group - "Listen for what you wish I had said"

After the presentation, have various individuals respond to their respective tasks. It is interesting to learn that people hear what they believe and want to hear. It is also a good way to clarify points which were not understood or misunderstood. The audience participates in the dialogue and becomes committed to a viewpoint on the subject - one way or another.

Interview Panel

A panel of audience members representing the various populations in the audience (teachers, parents, college students, and so on) interviews a speaker or a panel of experts, from the point of view of their own group. Such an interview panel may serve to start the question period.

Reaction Panel

A similarly representative group of audience members has the special assignment of asking questions at any time during the speech or presentation. They are to ask questions that they think may be puzzling the group they represent, not their own personal questions.

EXERCISE IN HELPING RELATIONSHIP

PURPOSE: To practice skills in helping and being helped.

PROCEDURE: Form trios, small groups of three persons. One person takes the part of a person seeking help. One person takes the part of a helper. One person acts as an observer.

After 3-5 minutes, each person takes a different role until all three persons have had an opportunity to play each role.

Conclude with a general discussion.

GUIDELINES FOR "THE SEEKER," OR THE PERSON WITH THE PROBLEM:
Your job is to select a problem that you want help on, a problem you would like to see more clearly. It should be a significant problem, but not so large that it cannot be helpfully discussed. It should be a real concern to you, something you care about. It should be a problem you are involved in, personally. It should be something you would like to see changed, something you believe should be changed. It should be something in which you see yourself in relation to other people.

GUIDELINES FOR "THE HELPER" OR CONSULTANT:
Your job is to help the person define his problem so that he sees it more clearly, maybe redefine it in terms that are specific enough that action steps can be considered.

These questions may be useful, but you may also use the third member of your trio for suggestions:

> What is the problem? Who sees this as a problem? Are you working as an individual on this or as part of an organization or institution? What do the difficulties seem to be?

CAUTIONS -- To Helper or Consultant:
Don't take over the problem. Resist the temptation to say, "Your real problem is thus and so." Don't start solving the problem. Resist the temptation to say, "Why don't you do thus and so." Don't pooh pooh the problem. Resist the temptation to say, "We had that problem and we solved it this way. Nothing to it."

SUGGESTIONS:
Do help the person focus on what he can do, not on what "they" ought to do. Don't continually ask: Why? How do you know. What does that mean?

GUIDELINES FOR "THE OBSERVER"
Your job is to observe and listen as closely as you can in order to help or "coach" either the person trying to act as helper or the one trying to define his problem

WATCH FOR --

1. How does the helper go about setting the stage, or establishing a relationship? Hoe does he form a climate in which he can give help?

2. How well does the helper listen -- really?

3. How well does the person defining the problem listen -- really?

4. How does the person with a problem receive help?

5. Are both persons sticking with defining and understanding the problem, clarifying it, etc., instead of solving it?

6. Does the person receiving help also establish an appropriate climate and assist in establishing the relationship?